

The Nation

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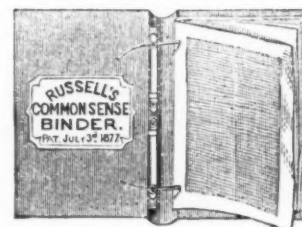
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40th Semi-Annual

STATEMENT

OF THE

TRAVELERS

INSURANCE CO.

HARTFORD, CONN., January 1, 1884.

Paid-up Cash Capital, \$600,000

ASSETS.

Real estate.....	\$705,353 99
Cash on hand and in bank.....	389,44 79
Loans on bond and mortgage, real estate.....	2,804,631 48
Interest on loans, accrued but not due.....	69,608 58
Loans on collateral security.....	392,061 07
Deferred Life Premiums.....	77,965 01
Premiums due and unreported on Life Policies.....	55,562 03
United States government bonds.....	206,500 00
State, county, and municipal bonds.....	773,936 04
Railroad stocks and bonds.....	1,307,520 00
Bank stocks.....	812,414 00
Miscellaneous stocks and bonds.....	118,100 00
Total Assets.....	\$7,435,977 85

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, four per cent., Life Department.....	\$4,511,250 33
Reserve for re-insurance, Accident Dept.....	701,501 84
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities.....	354,726 00
Total liabilities.....	\$5,567,482 27
Surplus as regards policy-holders.....	\$1,868,495 58

STATISTICS FOR THE YEAR 1883.

LIFE DEPARTMENT.

Number of Life Policies written in 1883.....	2,100
Whole number of Life Policies in force.....	14,378
Gain in Life Policies in force.....	935
Amount Life Insurance in force.....	\$25,095,604 00
Gain in amount in force in 1883.....	\$2,163,271
Paid Policy-Holders in Life Department.....	\$2,067,630 59

ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Number of Accident Policies written in 1883.....	116,139
Gain in Policies over 1882.....	13,018
Gain in Premiums over 1882.....	\$245,275 80
Whole number Accident policies written.....	962,591
Number Accident Claims paid in 1883.....	17,029
Amount Accident Claims paid in 1883.....	\$864,255 21
Whole number Accident Claims paid.....	161,781
Whole amount Accident Claims paid.....	\$5,210,637 59
Total Losses paid, both Departments.....	\$8,978,277 15

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 10, 1884.

The Week.

THE year 1883 will long be remembered as a period of continuous decline in prices, resulting in an increase of 50 per cent. in the number of failures in the United States, and 70 per cent. in their aggregate liabilities; a year in which the expansion of the railroad system suddenly decreased from the building of nearly 12,000 miles of railway in 1882 to 6,600 miles in 1883; a year of liquidation and contraction of enterprises. These phenomena were reflected in the money market by the distrustful attitude maintained by capital toward investments of any sort, whether in the share capital of corporations or their first-mortgage bonds, and also in the distrust of all mercantile credit, as manifested in the extreme discrimination exercised in the discount of mercantile paper, and the preference for loans on collateral security even at rates so low that it was at times scarcely worth the trouble and risk of making loans at all. Moreover, in the last few weeks it has appeared that the Northern Pacific Railroad and the New York, West Shore & Buffalo have each cost about \$7,000,000 more than their original estimates, while the New York & New England, the Ohio Central, and several others have been placed in the hands of receivers, and the promoters of these enterprises have all suffered greater losses than was presumed possible a few months ago. On the other hand, there is still an unusual exportable supply of grain and cotton products in the United States. The stocks of grain in store at the West, and of cotton at the sea-ports and interior towns of the United States, are larger than ever before, and the movement of these within the next six months, even at low prices, must do much toward the restoration of confidence, by giving the railways large earnings, and increasing the credit balance due to the United States from Europe.

The sudden and complete reversal of public opinion regarding Mr. Henry Villard, consequent upon the discovery that of all losers by the reaction in Oregon and Northern Pacific shares he has been by far the heaviest loser, and that his loss has been made total, or nearly so, by his endeavors to save others from loss who had invested in those securities by reason of their faith in him, is one of the most noteworthy features of a troubled time in the world of finance. Here is a man who has handled nearly or quite one hundred million dollars of other people's money within the space of four years. Much of this was put in his hands without other security than his personal receipt. Fortunes were made in the earlier enterprises which he planned, and the two Oregon companies which he first took in charge (the Railway and Navigation Company and the Improvement Company) are still earning

handsome dividends and are on a sound foundation. The Transcontinental Company, which came later, was caught in the financial gale which began to blow about the time that President Garfield was assassinated, and which has carried down so many promising enterprises since that date. When people began to lose money, suspicion was naturally cast upon Mr. Villard, and as the losses became heavier the storm of detraction became louder and fiercer, until the man against whom its force was directed fell. Then it was found that he had wronged no man or company, that he had helped others as long as he could, and that when he could do no more, he had retired and handed his property over to his creditors as the same might appear. The *Times*, which was conspicuous among his assailants, rightly esteems Mr. Villard's career as a shining contrast to what usually goes on among "magnates" in Wall Street and the railway world.

There seems to be no pressing demand for any specific scheme for distributing the surplus. Already bills have been presented to Congress calling for no less than \$500,000,000 of special appropriations for all sorts of purposes. A big surplus is a powerful magnet, and the grand rush made to get some of it will convince Mr. Blaine of the shrewdness of his effort to gain Presidential capital by formulating a plan for general distribution. Already applications have been presented for the appropriation of \$105,000,000 for public education, \$175,000,000 for pensions, \$100,000,000 for the never-ending process of equalizing bounties, \$30,000,000 for State claims, \$12,000,000 for public buildings, and \$25,000,000 for half-pay Revolutionary officers. The pension schemes are unusually prolific and ingenious, and show that the "soldier vote" is still an object of great solicitude.

The publication of the Huntington letters has produced an immediate effect in Washington, by showing some members of Congress how dangerous it is for them to be seen in familiar converse with lobbyists, or the employees of lobbyists. One of them is quoted as saying that the moral of the correspondence is—have nothing to do with Huntington; not because he is a bad man, for Congressmen in the discharge of their duty have to meet bad men, but because he may take advantage of the interview to write a letter to "Friend Colton" about it, giving him the idea that he has secured another vote by corrupt means. There is nothing in the correspondence as published, however, to show that Huntington is in the habit of writing letters for the purpose of blackening the characters of good but unsuspecting Congressmen and Senators, or misrepresenting to Colton what he is about. The evidence contained in them is particularly trustworthy, because he is always so afraid that it will get into print. He had reason enough to desire to corrupt Congress-

men, but no reason at all to misrepresent to Colton the real nature of his transactions with them.

The *Sun* has a doleful despatch from Washington, purporting to give the views of Democratic Congressmen who are returning from visits to their constituents during the holiday recess. It represents nearly all of them as standing on the verge of despair. One is put down as saying that "no party can succeed in this country on a free-trade platform during the present generation—it is death to any party now." Another declares that a revision of the tariff, without a reduction of the duty on wool is an impossibility, and such a reduction will ruin them in Ohio. Another thinks that Louisiana will never stand a reduction of sugar duties. Another says Mississippi insists upon a duty upon puto, another, that South Carolina must have a duty on rice, and still another, that Alabama must have a duty on iron. "When the Democrats face such facts as these," says the despatch, "they begin to get gloomy, and are determined to do all in their power to prevent an agitation which they fear will lead to ruin." The most curious thing about the whole situation is the idea, which seems to animate the *Sun* in its persistent advocacy of the "gloomy view," that, by taking the back track now and attempting to dodge the issue till after the Presidential election, the party can improve its prospects at all.

The temperance leaders in Ohio have formulated an ambitious scheme for work in the approaching Presidential campaign. They are going to send a petition, signed by Republicans only, to the Republican National Convention, and another, signed by Democrats only, to the Democratic National Convention, asking each body to come out in favor of submitting a prohibitory amendment to the National Constitution. If either convention consents to do this, the support of the temperance vote will be pledged to its Presidential candidates. If neither consents, then a national temperance ticket will be put in the field, and the two political parties must prepare for trouble. The scheme is not likely to alarm the politicians of the country sufficiently to induce them to recognize it. The temperance movement in Ohio and in other Western States, while it is likely to be a formidable factor in State elections for many years to come, must necessarily fall into the background during a Presidential contest, when other and more exciting issues come to the front. Furthermore, the antagonism between the Republicans and temperance people in Ohio during the last campaign threw the State into the hands of the Democrats, and postponed all possibility of temperance legislation till 1885. The situation is practically the same in Iowa. Agitation in either State can hope to accomplish little for two years at least.

The Supreme Court rendered a decision on Monday which will at least suspend or re-

tard the Readjuster swindling in Virginia. The State, it may be remembered, issued bonds, the coupons of which were made receivable for taxes. The Readjusters, when they got into power, proceeded to cheat the bondholders by depriving the coupons of their tax-paying power and forbidding the tax-collector to receive them. A suit was thereupon brought by a taxpayer named Austin Smith, against the Richmond Treasurer, in the United States Court, for levying on his goods for taxes after he had tendered the coupons in payment. The suit was, on the defendant's application, removed to the State Court, where the plaintiff would have no chance. The Supreme Court has now reinstated the cause in the Federal Court. There are other Virginia coupon cases before the Supreme Court, but they will probably not be reached for some time.

The Government seems to make little headway with its attempts to exclude the Louisiana Lottery from the mails. Judge Pardee has just decided a minor point against it, and there promises to be plenty of litigation over the matter for some time to come. The difficulty comes in part from the fact that the lottery is regarded by a large part of the community in Louisiana as an excellent institution, and that there is plenty of money to carry on the fight. In the case of the use of the mail for the circulation of indecent publications, the Government has to contend with timid rascals who are dreadfully afraid of being caught. But in the case of this lottery, one of the moves of the defence has been to get a reputable New Orleans bank to do its correspondence for it. It is difficult to stop such things as this without the introduction of inquisitorial machinery, which is, to say the least, of doubtful utility.

Every newspaper that has referred to Judge McCrary's resignation has urged the increase of the Circuit judges' salaries. The *Herald*, however, makes the somewhat singular remark, that the increase of salaries would not draw to the bench abler men than are now there, and would not keep them there. If this is so, why not leave the matter alone? or why pay them any salary at all? There are plenty of sharp lawyers in this city who would take any Federal judgeship in the land gladly, and pay a bonus for it too. One objection to low salaries is that it occasionally brings on to the bench judges who are altogether too sharp. Has not the *Herald* heard of such cases?

The Raleigh (N. C.) *News and Observer* says that silver now forms the ordinary currency of the South, while in New England there is none of it in use, and in other parts of the North very little. The reason is, that "the large, hard, indestructible silver dollar is well suited to the wants and needs" of the Southern people. It complains, therefore, that the Government, by its present course in coining and putting afloat a silver coin which is only worth 86 cents on the dollar, is doing the South a great injury, and demands that the silver dollar be made within one cent as valuable as the gold dollar by increasing its size. It calls on Mr. Dowd, who serves on the

Coinage Committee, to pay heed to this suggestion, which is not novel, though the argument by which it is supported is.

Butler ended his career as Governor of Massachusetts at noon on New Year's Day. He crowded the last few days of his term as full as possible with Butler antics, and was evidently determined to go out of office with flying colors. Having made the mistake of accusing his predecessor of pardoning a convict whom he had himself pardoned, he got out of the blunder, in a thoroughly Butlerish manner, by saying that there were so many Republican officials, and so many Sunday-school teachers, deacons, and ministers in the State prison that he could not help getting them mixed up. Then he appointed to preach the customary election sermon a clergyman who he knew would commend his administration, and rode with great military pomp to the church to listen to it. Then he left a copy of the Bible in the Executive Chamber, inscribing in it that he found no Bible there when he came into office, that he supposed "each Governor took his away with him," that this one had been given to him by a friend, and that he would leave it for the use of his successors.

The latest version of Mr. Blaine's Presidential policy exhibits him as playing the slyest game of his life. He is represented as keeping himself in the background, and pushing forward a multitude of lesser men for the nomination, with the ultimate hope that when each of these discovers that his own chance is hopeless, he will turn about, and out of gratitude nominate Blaine as the candidate upon whom all can unite. In compliance with this deep-laid scheme, it is said that Blaine has already declared himself in favor of five separate candidates. He has nominated Allison in Iowa, Harrison in Indiana, Cullom in Illinois, Miller in California, Sabin in Minnesota, and has given each his private assurance that he is the choice of his heart for the place. In this way he hopes to make them all sharers in the Blaine reserve boom which shall appear at the last moment, snatch the Sage, resisting with all his might, from his "great big table" of historical composition, and thrust him into the Presidential chair. There may be little truth in this version, but there is nothing improbable about it.

Governor Knott, of Kentucky, has been making an attempt, which must prove futile, in his message to the Legislature, to clear the State of the charge of murderous lawlessness. He has nothing to offer in support of his statement except the assertion that homicides are not more numerous in Kentucky than in many other States, and that a "distinguished English journalist," who lately passed through the State, gave it as his opinion—based, in part, doubtless, on the absence of any attempt on his own life—"that human life is just as safe in Kentucky as in England." That it is as safe in slums, saloons, and bar-rooms, we have no

doubt; but the charge against Kentucky is that no man is safe among the farmers, lawyers, doctors, and business men against murder or murderous assaults arising out of trifling business or social disputes, which, in other communities, would only lead to coolness or an angry word or two.

In Allendale, S.C., the other day, two O'Bryans were going home from a family dance and were roughly accosted by two Stranges in the street. They resented this proceeding by flogging the Stranges with canes and buggy whips in default of other weapons. The Stranges naturally resisted, and one of the O'Bryans, as a precautionary measure, ran and got his pistol. On his return to the scene of action, he found that the Stranges had received aid from a quarter from which aid seldom comes to men engaged in mortal combat, namely, their grandfather, Mr. Hewlett, the City Marshal, who began to use his pistol freely on the O'Bryans. He was assisted by his two sons, so that there were then three generations of the Hewletts actively engaged. The O'Bryans could not have made head against such odds had they, too, not received a reinforcement in the person of their kinsman, Gus Allen. After a brief action at very close range Tom Hewlett and Evan Strange were slain, and some of the others wounded. The Coroner's jury declared that the dead fell "under pistol shots fired by hands unknown." The *Charleston News and Courier* pronounced this a failure of justice, and asked for an indictment, but the citizens of Allendale have resented this interference at a public meeting, in which they declared that the observations of the *News and Courier* "deeply grated upon the sensibilities of every law-abiding person in Barnwell County," and that "they felt grateful to God for having overshadowed the lives of three brave men while defending themselves from death," while praying to God "to have mercy on the souls of the unfortunate men shriven through the baptism of blood so unavoidable." It thus seems that everybody came out of the affair creditably. The living did some excellent killing, and the dead also are entitled to the thanks of the community for dying.

The Canada protectionists are beginning their education where children begin theirs—in confectionery. A late boom for a protective duty on refined sugar for the benefit of the refiners succeeded so far as to raise the price of American refined sugar to a figure which left a margin for home production. Thereupon a refinery was started which did a good business on the small consumption of the Dominion, but when three more refineries started in competition, the profits ran down so that the protectionists are asking for increase of the duty to save them from ruin. While they are legislating, why not go further, and provide that each family in the Dominion shall consume a definite quantity per annum, and that if the consumers can't pay, the Canadian Government shall? That would be the sweet *reductio ad absurdum* of protectionism, and not more absurd than some of its whims here.

The Higbie-Vaughan mock-marriage case exhibits in a glaring light the condition of the marriage laws of this State. The parties are a boy and girl, of seventeen and eighteen years, and the marriage, according to evidence brought before the Judge, was the result of a "church sociable" frolic. In the midst of this, it was proposed that all present should get married, and a great number of mock marriages were solemnized, the parties in the present case being each married twice over. The testimony taken reveals extreme laxity in the manners of the whole party, but the sum and substance of the case is an attempt on the part of the girl or her family to perpetrate a gross fraud under cover of the law—taking, of course, the Judge's view of the facts proved as correct. The girl, it is true, swore to some facts which gave a different color to the occurrence, but, unfortunately, what she said was contradicted by eight disinterested witnesses. Her lawyer, however, promises to appeal to the General Term of the Supreme Court, and the case may find its way to the Court of Appeals, and become an authority as to the marriage laws of this State. Our judges apparently have to allow such proceedings to be gravely litigated. They show a condition of law which is confessedly scandalous and dangerous. There is nothing to prevent the Legislature from stopping the evil by the passage of a bill requiring record evidence of all marriages. This is all that a marriage license means. Nobody imagines that there is any hardship in such a law. Why should we insist upon record evidence of all transactions of importance involving the transfer of property, and require no permanent record of the most solemn of all human contracts?

A new social craze has been started in England which promises well as far as it has gone—a ghost and haunted-house revival. England, being a country of old families, is full of haunted houses and of ghosts, and the spread of spiritualism in the last twenty-five years has probably done something to create a good atmosphere for a general ghost "racket." It will, perhaps, have a good economical effect in raising the rents of dilapidated houses having a good ghost record. The market for these has always been depressed, but if society takes up the craze with a will, it may possibly bring such dwellings into fashion yet, and this result of the movement would be a god-send to many an old family whose heavily encumbered estates fail to yield the income they once did.

The Irish Government have got themselves into a heap of trouble by having at the outset countenanced the extraordinary doctrine that they ought to prohibit the meetings of the Irish Nationalists in any district in which the Orangemen threatened to make a riotous attack on them. Nationalist meetings held to discuss or petition for a separate government for Ireland are, of course, perfectly legal, because they only discuss or petition for the repeal of an act of Parliament, and they were entitled to be protected by all the force of the state. But Lord Spencer, in a thoughtless

moment, gave countenance to the silly view that holding such meetings in Ulster was a reasonable provocation to Protestants, and thus gave the Orangemen to understand that all they had to do, in order to have them prevented, was to threaten to attack them. He has since seen the error of his ways, but too late, for he has to protect them now by charges of cavalry and infantry. How ill-founded the notion is that Ulster is in any sense Protestant territory, in which discontented Catholics or Celts ought not to be allowed to open their lips, is easily shown by the figures of the last census. The Catholics in the ten counties of Ulster number 633,566; the Protestant denominations 831,031. But in five of the ten counties, the Catholics are in a considerable majority, the Protestant strength lying in four counties only. In Tyrone County, in which the recent Orange rioting has been going on, the Catholics number 109,793; all the Protestants put together, 87,916.

The story which has been going the rounds of the papers, that the *Tribune's* London correspondent is really an American named Smalley, born and bred in Connecticut, may be dismissed without criticism. The *Anglo-American Times* probably comes near the mark in saying that he is "an officer of the Royal Engineers." But this, too, is doubtful. The officers of the Royal Engineers are generally very accomplished men, of liberal sympathies and opinions. One of Darwin's sons is in the corps. If the correspondent is in the army at all, it must be in the Life Guards, in which none but intensely Tory views of politics and society are tolerated, and an officer's most important duty is commanding the escorts for the Queen between Windsor Castle and the railroad station. He always rides close to the off hind wheel of the carriage, and his chief care is to prevent his men from cantering, which the Queen greatly dislikes. The world seen from this position, and especially the Radical and Irish world, must appear indeed vulgar and turbulent. But against this theory there is the internal evidence of his letters that he is well on in life, in which case he would hardly be serving as a regimental officer. He is, therefore, if a military man, probably a choleric old half-pay general with a wig, who makes it hot for the waiters at the United Service Club and at Boodle's.

The story of the Pope's having received a threatening letter from the Fenians apropos of his course in regard to the share of the Irish clergy in the Nationalist agitation, is an illustration of the absurdly excessive importance which has been attached to threatening letters all through this Irish trouble. The Irish police have kept regular records of the number of such letters received every month, which have been regularly laid before Parliament as important criminal statistics bearing on the condition of the country. As a matter of fact, however, probably not one in a thousand had any importance whatever, or was anything but a cheap and comparatively safe mode of annoying or frightening some one; and the

more importance was attached to them by the police, of course, the more of them were written. The Pope's letter is probably of this character. Why should not some wag or crack-brained person, Irish or other, threaten his life by mail, when it only costs five cents, and promises to make a newspaper sensation that will last several days?

The British Cabinet, it was announced on Monday, had settled its Egyptian policy. It has determined to let the False Prophet have the Sudan, but not to let him leave it—that is, to defend Egypt proper against him—and has intimated to the Khedive that to this he must submit, or else go up and fight the Prophet himself. The notion that the Turks or anybody else will be allowed or encouraged to do it has probably no foundation. The Abyssinians can be got to attack him for a trifle, and a little money spent in this way would be well spent by anybody who does not like the Prophet, and wishes him ill. That he will never try to leave the Sudan is all but certain. If he is allowed to have Khartum for a capital, he will be only too happy. It is not likely, however, that he will long remain in undisputed possession of his honor and authority. His success as a Prophet will induce others to go into the business. There are probably a half dozen dervishes lodging in caves or barrels to day, and making themselves as nasty and malodorous as possible, in preparation for setting up an opposition concern. There is in the Sudan room for a dozen Prophets to pray, preach, and fight.

Under these circumstances, the course of wisdom both for England and Egypt would seem to be to let El Mahdi have as much Sudan as he cares for. The people all seem friendly to him. Egyptian civilization has taken no hold of them. Everybody seems to welcome him—some few, perhaps, because they believe in him, but by far the greater number because they liked the good old slave-trading days, which under his rule would come back again. Baker Pasha and Chinese Gordon undoubtedly did a great deal to suppress the trade in the Eastern Sudan, but the truth is, whether it be a melancholy truth or not, that the negroes of the South on whom the Arab slave-dealers make their annual raids, will probably not obtain complete immunity within any reasonable period, except by turning Mohammedans. It is an undoubted fact that more has been done for the elevation of the negro tribes of Northern and Central Africa by Mussulman propagandism within the last thirty or forty years than by any other agency. The Mohammedan faith has the inestimable advantage of rousing the savage's self-respect. When he becomes a true believer, he feels himself raised above the infidels around him, and learns to adore and trust in an unseen Power, and for the first time comes in contact with a moral theology, or, in other words, a theology which controls conduct, while he can still remain a fighting man and marauder. What is far more to our present purpose is, however, that he becomes a brother in the eyes of the Mussulman slave-dealers, who will not harm him as long as they can find *glaours* to prey upon.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 2, to TUESDAY, January 8, 1884 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

Affairs at Washington have been quiet during the week, owing to the holiday recess. Representative Reagan, of the House Committee on Commerce, hopes soon to consider in that body a bill for the regulation of interstate commerce. Mr. Randall on Thursday announced the sub-committees of the House Committee on Appropriations.

The House Military Committee has decided to report favorably the bill for the relief of Gen. Fitz-John Porter.

Congress reassembled on Monday. The House of Representatives adopted the rules of the last House, with minor modifications, for twenty days. It having been reported that circulars had been distributed in some of the departments asking contributions for political purposes, in violation of the Civil-Service Law, a resolution was adopted by the House calling upon the heads of the departments for information. The circulars referred to came from Indiana, and requested contributions, for "patriotic reasons," from the Indiana clerks to aid the Republican State Central Committee in preliminary work. The President was requested to furnish the House with information in regard to the exclusion of American hog products from Germany and from France. On Tuesday Mr. Cox, of New York, introduced a resolution calling upon the Secretary of State for information as to the treatment of Jews in Russia. Mr. Dorsheimer introduced a bill relating to the copyright law. Mr. Hunt, of Louisiana, introduced a joint resolution for the immediate appropriation of one million dollars, in accordance with the urgent request of the Mississippi River Commission.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Gibson, of Louisiana, introduced a bill repealing the act limiting the term of certain Federal officers to four years, and making them removable at the pleasure of the President.

At the meeting on Tuesday of the Senate Committee on Finance, Senator Sherman's bill to authorize national banks to secure circulation up to 90 per cent. of the market value of the bonds deposited, was under discussion, but no conclusions were reached. It was urged in support of the measure that it would enable the banks to use the bonds of long time bearing a rate of interest higher than three per cent. Its passage was objected to on the ground that it would be dangerous to make the amount of the circulating medium the subject in any way of a fluctuating standard. It is probable that the bill in some form will be reported by the Committee.

General Anson McCook, Secretary of the Senate, has decided to retain in office all Republican employees who were not disturbed by the Democrats.

The decrease in the public debt of the United States during the month of December was \$11,743,337. Since June 30, 1883, the decrease has been \$53,049,483.

United States Consul Mason, at Basle, Switzerland, in a report to the State Department, points out that the prohibition of American pork in Europe is really due to the fact that its cheapness injures the prosperity of the European farmers. The theory that American meats are diseased is an invention to still the clamor of the people, who are thus deprived of cheaper meat. He says: "The fact deserves to be widely known that here in Switzerland, which is almost the only Continental country in which American meats are permitted to be imported and sold on their merits, their reputation is not only higher now than ever before, but they command a preference in this market over similar classes of meats from every other country."

A short session of the New York Legislature was held on Wednesday, after which they adjourned until Tuesday evening, in order to allow the Speaker time to prepare his committees.

The Senate and Assembly committees were announced when the Legislature reassembled on Tuesday evening. They were prepared, it is said, in the interests of Republican harmony. In the Assembly, Mr. Littlejohn is Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, Mr. Roosevelt, of that on Cities, and Mr. Erwin, of that on Lands.

Gov. Cleveland was called upon, on Wednesday, by a committee of New York city Senators and Assemblymen, who recommended Amos J. Cummings for the position of Aqueduct Commissioner made vacant through the death of Mr. George W. Lane. Mr. Cummings is a journalist. On Monday the Governor appointed Christopher C. Baldwin, a dry-goods merchant of this city, to the vacant position.

Governor Foster, of Ohio, in his message presented on Monday, urges the Legislature to protest against further tariff changes; says that public opinion demands that the Scott law be given a fair trial; opposes the abolition of the prison-contract system, and suggests that all sentences be of an indeterminate character, life sentences excepted, the term of imprisonment to be determined by the prison managers. The managers should adopt a system of rules providing for promotion for good conduct, and reduction of standing for bad conduct. At a certain degree of promotion the convict should be entitled to go out of the prison with the right to his earnings, although he should remain a convict still, bearing the certificate of the prison managers to that effect.

H. B. Payne was nominated for U. S. Senator to succeed Mr. Pendleton, by the Ohio Democratic caucus of the Legislature on Tuesday evening. He received a majority of 7 over all. There were 82 votes cast. Mr. Pendleton received 15, and Durbin Ward 17. It is a victory for the "New Democracy," of which the Cincinnati *Enquirer* is the exponent.

The Women's Christian Temperance Union of Ohio has decided to ask for the resubmission of the Prohibition Amendment at the State election of October, 1885.

The New Jersey Legislature was organized on Tuesday. The Democrats elected Mr. Stoney Speaker of the House, and H. D. Winton, Clerk. The Republicans elected B. A. Vail President of the Senate. In the afternoon Governor Ludlow's message was sent to the Legislature. He recommends an increase in the receipts of the State to \$1,000,000 per annum, and a reduction of expenditures by \$52,000. He discusses the question of railroad taxation, and recommends a correction of the weak points in the present statute.

The Massachusetts State Senate organized on Wednesday by electing George A. Bruce President, and the House re-elected George A. Marden Speaker. Governor Robinson's first message was sent to the Legislature on Thursday. He favors a constitutional amendment providing for biennial elections and biennial sessions of the Legislature. He discusses briefly the needs of the State civil service, and recommends the enactment of a reform law in accordance with public sentiment. He favors weekly payments of laborers in private or corporate employ, instead of payments at longer intervals.

Insurance Commissioner Tarbox, of Massachusetts, who has had trouble with several insurance companies, presented a special report to the Legislature on Friday afternoon, in which he discussed some of the points at issue. In reference to illegal reinsurance, the Commissioner recommends that a penalty of \$500 be imposed on agents as well as on the companies effecting it. As to cooperative insurance, he shows the urgency of appropri-

ate legislation. He says that he has no doubt that many mutual-assessment companies of a fraternal nature exceed their proper powers as such.

A. P. Martin was inaugurated Mayor of Boston on Monday. His message shows that the city will have to borrow \$100,000 to meet current expenses during the ensuing year. He urges rigid economy, the consolidation of city pauper institutions, and the creation of a Board of Public Works.

The third annual message of Mayor Low, of Brooklyn, which was sent to the Common Council on Monday, deals especially with the water-supply question. He recommends an immediate enlargement of the Ridgewood reservoir to double its present size, and adds: "In my opinion we ought to take steps at once to secure an increase, not of 5,000,000 or 10,000,000 gallons, as in 1883, but of 20,000,000 gallons, and that as part of a plan having in view an ultimate supply of at least 100,000,000 gallons."

Mr. Matthew Arnold delivered his lecture on Emerson to a large and attentive audience at Association Hall, in this city, on Friday evening. It is asserted that he will probably be the next Secretary of the Education Department of Great Britain, at a salary of \$10,000 per year.

Judge McCrary, of the Eighth United States Judicial Circuit, has resigned to become general counsellor of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railway Company.

In the lottery cases at New Orleans Judge Pardee has decided technically against the Postmaster-General, holding that the present Postmaster-General cannot revive the original order of General Key after Key had revoked it. He may issue a new order based on evidence of fraud presented to him.

The compositors in the office of the *Troy Times* struck, without warning, on Thursday. The *Times* had been a non-Union office for years, and was paying its men better rates than Union offices in that city. The compositors demanded that it be made a Union office. The proprietors do not propose to yield, and are organizing another force, with every prospect of success.

An order has been given by the anthracite coal managers of Pennsylvania for half time at the mines during January, February, and March. This is received with great dissatisfaction by the workmen.

Nearly all the iron and steel mills of Pittsburgh are now running, with fair prospects of an increase in business during the present winter. The outlook in the iron trade is therefore more encouraging.

The Reading Railroad has notified all of its employees holding public offices to resign their positions or leave the company's employ. Two members of the incoming New Jersey Legislature are affected by the order.

Mr. Henry Villard on Friday resigned the Presidency of the Northern Pacific Railroad, on account of ill-health and for the best interests of the corporation. In his letter he says: "I am consoled by an abiding confidence that the future will completely vindicate all that I have done."

Mr. Villard's resignation as President was accepted, his resignation as Director was laid upon the table. In view of the fact that during his Presidency Mr. Villard had declined to receive any salary, the Directors passed a resolution ordering the Treasurer to pay him a sum of money at the rate of \$10,000 a year for the time during which he held the office.

A meeting of influential men was held at San Francisco on Thursday, at which it was resolved to take preliminary steps for a World's Fair to be held in that city in 1887. A guarantee fund of \$1,000,000 is to be raised.

The Columbia College Trustees on Monday received a letter from Professor Rees, of the Astronomical Observatory, stating that Lewis

M. Rutherford, a Trustee, had given his astronomical instruments to the Observatory. They are valued at \$12,000, and consist of a 13-inch equatorial refracting telescope, with other valuable apparatus.

A parlor car containing the members of the Yale College Glee Club, on their annual concert tour, was run into by an express train at Charleston, Ind., on Saturday night, and two students were seriously, if not fatally, injured.

The convent of the Immaculate Conception, of Belleville, Ill., fourteen miles from St. Louis, was burned on Saturday night, and thirty-seven young women and the Mother Superior perished in the flames. The convent was a very fashionable educational institution. The fire started in the basement, cutting off means of escape, and no ladders were at hand long enough to reach the upper stories.

Dr. Edward Lasker, the eminent German Liberal, died suddenly of heart disease on Friday night, between eleven and twelve o'clock. He had been dining at the residence of Jesse W. Seligman, and was walking home with an acquaintance. He suddenly became ill, walked more slowly, and finally sank down upon the door step of a private stable. He was carried to the coachman's room above and soon expired. On June 22 last, Dr. Lasker came to America to see his brother in Texas, and to make a study of our institutions. He remained in this city for about a month after his arrival, and crossed the Continent with the Northern Pacific Railroad excursionists. Funeral services will be held in this city on Thursday.

A very general cold wave swept over the country during the week, being first felt in the East on Friday. At Jamestown, Dak., the thermometer was 48 degrees below zero on Friday. In this city it stood at 7 degrees above zero on Monday at 6 A. M. There was a general rise in temperature on Tuesday.

FOREIGN.

Affairs in Egypt approached a crisis during the week. It was asserted on Wednesday that if England insisted upon the complete abandonment of the Sudan, the resignation of the Egyptian Ministry would ensue. The Khedive recommended retrenchment in governmental expenses. There was a cry for Ismail Pasha, the ex-Khedive, or English annexation. On Friday it became known that the relations between England and Egypt were strained. The Government of Egypt sent a note to the Government of Great Britain pointing out to the latter that the present state of things in Egypt could not continue, and asking that a final decision should be given upon the Sudan question. If England should refuse the assistance asked by Egypt, the Khedive and his Ministry determined to abandon to Turkey the Eastern Sudan, and reduce the Egyptian tribute to the Porte. The Egyptian troops would then be concentrated in Egypt proper, thus giving a force of fifteen thousand men to protect the frontier, without the aid of the English army.

The British Cabinet on Saturday, after a prolonged discussion, arrived at a final decision as to the Egyptian policy. The policy heretofore outlined by Mr. Gladstone was adopted. Three official despatches are known to have been sent out at the conclusion of the session. The first assured the Khedive that England would maintain her position in Egypt. The second guaranteed the Khedive that England would undertake to resist any attempt at the invasion of Lower Egypt by El Mahdi, but stated that this guarantee meant no more than that England would assume to confine El Mahdi's operations to the Sudan, and must not be construed as promising any assistance in resisting those operations so long as they were not an actual attack on Egypt proper. The third instructed the British Consul at Massowah to inform the King of Abyssinia that England

would not approve of any military operations by Abyssinian troops in the Sudan. Great Britain does not object to the cession of the Eastern Sudan to Turkey, or to Turkish reconquest of the Sudan, provided the Porte pays the expenses. England insists upon the withdrawal of the troops at Khartum to the second cataract of the Nile.

The Egyptian Ministry tendered their resignations to the Khedive at 8 o'clock on Monday evening with the following letter: "The Queen's Government has demanded the abandonment of the Sudan. We have no right to take that step, since the Sudan is in the possession of the Porte, and intrusted to our charge. The Queen's Government asserts that Egypt should follow its counsels without discussion. This declaration violates the organic rescript of August 28, 1878, that the Khedive governs with and through his Ministers. We resign because we are prevented from governing in accordance with the Constitution." On Tuesday Nubar Pasha, who was the Egyptian Minister of War in 1878, accepted the Premiership of the new Ministry, and appointed Mr. Edgar Vincent Minister of Finance.

France regrets the attitude of the English Cabinet on Egyptian affairs in refusing to act outside of Egypt proper, but will offer no objections thereto.

A meeting of the British Cabinet was held on Thursday, at which the programme to be adopted by the Government at the coming session of Parliament, to begin on February 5, was considered.

Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, after attending a Cabinet Council in London, returned to Ireland on Saturday with the sanction of the Cabinet for the adoption of such measures in Ireland as he may think necessary to preserve order.

A friend of O'Donnell has published a story in Dublin to the effect that the latter narrated to him the circumstances attending the assassination of Carey, the informer, and that the affair was a deliberate murder, for the sake of revenge, on the part of O'Donnell.

Mr. Henry George arrived in London on Sunday, and was received by 1,500 people at the railway station, among them a committee of the Land Reform Union.

The striking weavers in North and North-east Lancashire, England, have increased in numbers to 18,000.

A new book has been written by Queen Victoria entitled: 'More Leaves from the Journal of Life in the Highlands, from 1862 to 1882.' Copies have already been presented to a few privileged persons.

William Black, the English novelist, is seriously ill from over-work.

Mr. Lowell's resignation of the Lord Rectory of St. Andrew's University was on Wednesday positively announced. The principal of the University has requested him to deliver an address to the students and he has consented.

The French Government has received no official communication from the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, since the capture of Sontay. It is asserted that Admiral Courbet met with such stubborn opposition from the enemy, in his attack on Sontay, that he has decided to await the arrival of reinforcements before making any further movements.

The report that the Black Flags massacred French prisoners, captured before Sontay, has been confirmed.

A Paris correspondent asserts that the French Government proposes to sell the state railways; moreover, that the Rothschilds, in behalf of certain great railway companies, have offered the Government 420,000,000 francs for the lines. If the sale were effected, the Government would be enabled to dispense with its contemplated loan of 400,000,000 francs. But the rumor is explicitly contradicted.

Marquis de Rays, charged with falsely inducing many persons to subscribe to an alleged enterprise for the colonization of Port Breton Island, in the South Seas, and for inducing several hundred people to settle there, where many of them died of starvation, was on Wednesday convicted in Paris, and sentenced to four years' imprisonment and \$600 fine. A number of his associates were also convicted and sentenced.

A Rome correspondent asserts that the conversation held by the Pope with Crown Prince Frederick William upon the occasion of the latter's visit to the Vatican, consisted of two parts, one of which will remain absolutely secret, while the other will be published at the proper time. The Pope has informed the Cardinals that he has consigned to the secret archives a detailed account of the conversation between himself and Prince Frederick William, in order to transmit to posterity a statement which may in the future be of much importance.

It was reported on Friday that the Pope's Secretary, Monsignor Boccia, opened a letter from America, addressed to "Leo XIII.," containing Fenian threats against the Pope should he continue to support England against the national cause in Ireland.

The Pope has confirmed the appointment of Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, as apostolic delegate to preside at the Catholic Council to be held in Baltimore in 1885.

The ceremony of transferring the body of the late King Victor Emanuel from its temporary burying place to the chapel in the Pantheon, took place in Rome on Saturday. The public was not admitted.

Marietta Gazzaniga, the well-known opera singer, died recently in Italy. She was about sixty years of age.

Prince Bismarck has forbidden the circulation in Germany of three well-known organs of extreme Socialism.

The latest version of the recent accident to the Czar is, that while he was returning from a hunting expedition with his suite, six men suddenly appeared in the road and shot at him. His horses became frightened and his sledge was overturned. A bullet lodged in his shoulder, but the wound is not dangerous. Whether the story is true or not, the revival of Nihilism is undoubted.

Four Nihilists committed the murder of Lieutenant Colonel Sudeikin, referred to last week. The leader was an ex-artillery officer, who was discovered to be identical with Jabowski, the Nihilist. Important papers relating to Nihilist plots have been found at the late residence of Sudeikin. Thirty arrests have resulted.

It is reported by the correspondent of a London newspaper, that the passage in President Arthur's message wherein it is stated that it might become necessary for the United States to cooperate with other Powers for a safeguard of their rights of trade on the Congo, has given grievous offence to the Portuguese Government, which is under the impression that the Washington Cabinet would take a different view of the matter if Portugal had at her disposal a large fleet like that of England.

The Government of the Dutch East Indies has sent a body of troops to the West Coast of Atcheen, to compel the Rajah, who holds in captivity the crew of the steamer *Niara*, which was wrecked there in November last on the passage from Surabaya to Singapore, to surrender them.

Twenty-seven men employed at the Bolt works near Toronto were killed while on board a train near that city, on Wednesday morning. Their train was run into by a freight train. Many injured have since died.

Keshub Chunder Sen, the philanthropist and the promoter of the Brahmo Somaj sect in India, is dead.

JUDGES AND RAILROADS.

JUDGE McCrory, of the Eighth U. S. Circuit, has resigned, and has made a frank statement of his reasons for doing so. He resigns because the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad has offered him a much better salary than the sum (\$6,000) which the United States gave him. He says that he cannot, in justice to the claims of his family, decline an offer of honorable professional service, which will greatly increase his income and at the same time lighten his burdens. In making this statement he follows the example of Judge Dillon, who resigned this same judgeship four years ago to take a similar position as the salaried counsel of a great railroad.

These facts constitute an instructive commentary upon our judicial salary system. There are nine judicial circuits in the United States. The judges have the same jurisdiction, authority, and responsibility that attaches to the judges of the Supreme Court at Washington. The office of resident circuit judge was created after the war, to relieve the Court at Washington. A judge of that Court on circuit is, or ought to be, drawn from the same class as the judges at Washington. Nevertheless the United States pays the judges at Washington \$10,000 a year, the Chief Justice getting \$500 more, and the resident circuit judges \$6,000, and this although many of them, if not all, have to live during most, or a considerable part, of the year in cities where the rate of living is high, such as New York, Boston, San Francisco, and Chicago.

Now, in these circuits, since the war, the growth of litigated business has been enormous, especially so in the case of railroads. These corporations, for example in such a circuit as that from which Judge McCrory has just resigned, embracing the great railroad States of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, and Nebraska, are continually before the United States judges. Sometimes it is a foreclosure of which they arrange the terms; sometimes it is a receivership, when they not only appoint the receiver, but, through his agency, may have to run the railroad for months, clearing off its debts, enforcing its contracts, deciding whom it shall and whom it shall not employ. In all this business, the parties before the Court are great corporations, owning miles of territory, retaining the most expert lawyers the bar produces, and paying them enormous fees or large salaries. The legal battles fought out in these courts are the battles of giants; they affect millions of property, and the railroads have found by experience that they must in such litigation secure the very best legal ability the country affords without regard to its cost. From ten to twenty thousand dollars a year is the price of service of this sort for the great corporations.

It is into this market that the United States comes to look for circuit judges. Against the bidding of the railroads all it has to offer is the honor of the position, a tenure no better than that offered by the railroads, a life of more constant toil, and a much lower salary. One of two things must happen in consequence. Either the United States will get a

second-rate lawyer, who will not do his work well, or, what is more likely, it will get a man of ability, but of small practice, to whom the position will count for a good deal. In a few years he will, as has happened in the case of Judge Dillon and Judge McCrory, become familiar with the business of his court, and become, moreover, an expert in railroad and corporation law; in other words, he will have entered the field from which the great corporations draw their lawyers. It will become worth the while of some railroad to offer him such a salary as will tempt him to give it the benefit of his ability and judicial experience. To suppose that under such circumstances he will remain on the bench is absurd, and nobody does really suppose it.

The present system of lean salaries, therefore, tends to make the United States courts not great professional prizes, to which the greatest lawyers constantly look forward, but preparatory schools for the training of corporation lawyers. The type of an "ex-Judge" who has actually risen from the bench to the position of counsel to a railroad is a peculiar feature of our times. It is hardly necessary to say that it is not for the interest of any country to have such a view of the judicial career gain ground; and the only way to check it is to give the judges such salaries as to make the salary and the position combined more tempting than the bids continually made by the great competitors of the United States in the professional market. A railroad corporation that tried to get its legal work done on such terms as are offered by the United States, would speedily get into terrible trouble.

WHY THE CITY GOVERNMENT IS BAD.

THERE is another and unusually serious attempt to be made to reform the New York city government at this session of the Legislature, in the final passage of a Constitutional Amendment introduced two years ago by a Democratic Assemblyman from this city, Mr. W. S. Andrews. It prohibits special legislation with regard to any city, or any provision for the filling of any office now existing, or hereafter to be created, otherwise than by popular election, or by the appointment of the Mayor, and remits the organization of every municipal government to the people of the place, subject only to such general laws as the Legislature may pass. If the amendment be approved by the present Legislature, it will be submitted to the people next fall. But the amendment submitted by the Tilden Municipal Commission got as far as this one, and was killed. This one has perhaps a somewhat better chance of success, because it has at its back seven years' more experience of municipal corruption and misgovernment.

If it fails, it will fail for the reason which has for twenty-five years prevented any real improvement in municipal administration, and that is, the fact that, as a general rule, the State is Republican while the city is Democratic. Through their possession of the Legislature, therefore, in seven years out of ten, the Republican managers are furnished with the materials for "dickers" and "deals" with the Democratic politicians of the city.

The latter have great popular majorities at their disposal here, but they cannot turn them to full account as long as the Republicans at Albany have, through the Legislature, a firm hold on the city charter. This enables the latter to extort a fair share of city patronage from those who, under the spoils system, are its lawful owners.

There is no doubt, too, that the way in which the majority in the city supports Kelly, and for a good while supported Tweed, furnishes the Republicans with a very plausible argument against committing the vast body of property and mighty commercial interests now concentrated in New York to the complete control of the local vote. The same argument tells, as far as it goes, against permitting the election by a popular vote of an autocratic Mayor. Unless, however, the principle which forms the very foundation both of the State and Federal Government is defective, the majority is as fit to rule a city as to rule a nation; but this principle assumes that the majority is a majority of taxpayers. It is not noses which are supposed to be counted when a popular vote is canvassed in any part of the United States, but men who pay money for the common welfare and defence, and know they pay it—for a taxpayer who pays without knowing it, is for political purposes no taxpayer at all. In this matter more than in most others, the old Schoolmen's rule holds good, that what is not seen is of no more account than what does not exist.

Now, the reason why majority government succeeds so well all over the country in small municipalities, like towns, and does not succeed in large cities, is that in the former all, or nearly all, voters are direct taxpayers, and thus feel local politics to be part and parcel of their private and personal affairs. The tax-collector comes to nearly every householder to ask for a sum, be it small or great, the amount of which is in some way dependent on the last election or last town-meeting. In the great cities, on the other hand, the majority is largely made up of persons who, although really taxpayers, and suffering in health and comfort and income from municipal extravagance and corruption, do not believe or realize that they pay any taxes at all. They think the rich pay them, and it is because they think so that bosses like Tweed and Kelly are able to wield them at their will. We believe that any change in the municipal government which sent the tax-collector to every man for any sum, however small, the amount of which clearly depended on the city expenditure, would do more for good government in New York than any other single device. The payment by every man, however humble his abode, of the poor-rates as a condition of voting is the salvation of municipal government in England. It gives every laborer an active and intelligent interest in municipal affairs, although he is in no English municipality nearly as much of a taxpayer as the thousands of laborers here, who year after year send a gang of liquor-dealers to the City Hall to swindle and betray them. The "bottom fact" of misgovernment in this city, in short, is the belief of the poor that whatever their leaders can filch out of the Treasury and

spend in politics comes out of rich men's pockets and not out of their own. It was this lamentable delusion which the Tilden Municipal Commission sought to dispel by creating a Board of Finance, to be elected by people paying twelve dollars a month rent.

But even as things now are, we believe, if there could be a fair trial of strength once in two or three years between the intelligent and industrious voters of the city and the ignorant and idle or corrupt, on a distinct and important issue, the victory would remain with the former every time. If the Mayor were an all-powerful officer, and his election took place in the spring, with no other candidates to distract public attention, or confuse the public mind, so that the vice and virtue of the community could be fairly brought into collision over him, we believe the latter would invariably triumph. The very worst offence which the State government commits against the people of this city, and has been committing for nearly forty years, is the maintenance of charters which prevent this trial of strength from ever taking place, which provide so many offices and so many candidates, and so diffuse responsibility as to make the city government a huge mystery, which nobody can understand but the men who make a living out of it, and the effect on which of any election not even the innermost intriguers of local politics can foresee.

A NEW COPYRIGHT SCHEME.

ACCORDING to a Washington despatch, Mr. Dorsheimer, of this city, has introduced an international-copyright bill in the House, designed to afford protection to foreign authors here and to American authors abroad. It provides that whenever any foreign government shall accord to American authors the same rights that their own have, then, by Executive proclamation, the foreign author shall have the benefit of our laws. This is substantially the existing English system, and the passage of the act would at once establish international copyright between the United States and Great Britain.

A good many very enlightened publishers have always been of opinion that such a measure as this should receive the support, not merely of authors, but of all American publishers who are in favor of international copyright at all. What publishers desire is protection for American book manufacturers. This, in a country in which all domestic industries are protected, is natural enough; but the machinery for accomplishing this object is the tariff. Congress has always shown a perfect willingness to yield to their demands with regard to foreign books, and the rate of duty can be fixed so high, if it is not high enough already, as to prevent their competing with home-made books. The foreign author would then, in order to reach the American market, have to rely on an American reprint. In other branches of trade we do not mix up questions of property with the question of protection. We do not, for instance, say to the foreign wool-grower, "Grow your wool here, or else we will take your wool wherever

we find it and use it. We need cheap clothes, and therefore we cannot possibly recognize property in foreign wool." In the same way, though we undoubtedly use cheap spades and shovels, we do not say to the foreign maker of these articles, "Come over here and help us develop our iron industry, or else we will take your spades and shovels wherever we find them." But in copyright the publisher who admits that the foreigner's property in books ought to be recognized, and immediately turns upon him and says, "We will not recognize it, however, unless you consent to employ us," takes an unfair advantage of the accident that internationally there is no protection for this kind of property which each country protects in every other way. The recognition of property in books is a simple matter of justice and right, and even the extreme protectionist view does not require us to encourage a system of wholesale pillage for the purpose of opening foreigners' eyes to the advantage they could derive from turning to and helping our American manufacturer make money.

Mr. Dorsheimer's bill, however, has another feature of a novel sort, which is very objectionable. This is a provision that copyright shall only last for twenty-five years, and not be renewable. The subject of the proper duration of copyright was inquired into in England only five years ago by a very competent body of commissioners, and the evidence taken showed conclusively that to do equal justice to all classes of literary compositions a long term is necessary. Some books, such as novels by well-known hands, become immediately valuable, and in process of time their value disappears through a change in the public taste. Others require a considerable period to attain a market. Wordsworth, in 1845, told Mr. Macmillan, the publisher, that he had but just begun to receive any considerable sums of money from the sale of his poems. He was then an old man, and received about \$1,500 a year. In 1876, it appears that his copyrights would have been worth \$5,000 a year. Unfortunately, however, the copyrights had run out, so that the larger part of the results of his life of labor and self-denial were totally lost to him. Herbert Spencer published for years at a loss. It took him twenty-four years to reach a point at which his writings were not a positive pecuniary injury to him. Professor Huxley testified before the commission that this was the case with many valuable works relating to physical science, and all lawyers know how true it is of law books of any merit. The only way to put authors on an equal footing is to make the duration of copyright a long one. So universally has this principle been recognized by all modern civilized states that the period for the last hundred and fifty years has been steadily growing. In England and in the United States it has been extended from fourteen to forty-two years, in some European countries the time is even longer, and the tendency of all the evidence taken by the late commission in England was to show that it ought to be lengthened, not diminished.

It is difficult to see any reason for accompanying an international-copyright act by a

provision shortening the duration of the protection. Such curtailment will not be likely to please either the domestic or the foreign author. No publisher who is in favor of international copyright has ever asked for anything of the kind, so far as we know, and even the pirates could not profit by it in the case of any book until so long a period after it came out that their business would hardly be benefited appreciably by the restriction.

WASHINGTON ETIQUETTE.

THERE is, it seems, and not for the first time either, some trouble in Washington among the ladies of the Cabinet over the place given to Mrs. Carlisle, the Speaker's wife, at the White House reception on New Year's Day. She received standing next to the President, while it is maintained that the wife of the Secretary of State should have occupied this position, and that Mrs. Carlisle should have stood "below" the Cabinet. Another question which has come up again this winter is that of the relative social rank of the Speaker's wife and that of the wives of Supreme Court judges. One has a close connection with the other, as may be easily shown. The lady who receives with the President is the "first lady in the land." In ordinary cases it is his wife, when he is unmarried, or a widower, any one temporarily taking this position is first lady for the time. But the first lady must obviously outrank the wives even of Supreme Court judges. Therefore, if the Speaker's wife is really first lady, the judges' wives and the wives of Cabinet officers ought to call upon her first. But it is said that Mrs. Carlisle has, notwithstanding her place above the Cabinet on New Year's Day, determined to call first on the judges' wives—a resolution which leaves her rank in the sort of limbo in which we believe it has been for many years.

At a distance from Washington all this sounds rather perplexing, for it seems odd that there should be enough etiquette to furnish problems like these in the capital of a country in which, speaking generally, formality in manners is so little practised. We never meet with discussions in the press as to who is the first lady of New York, or of Milwaukee, or of Chicago, and no one in this city would bother himself much as to what was the social rank of a judge's or ex-judge's wife, as such. This is mainly because the divorce between Society and politics or official life here is complete; but the same thing is true of Boston, where the separation has not gone so far. Who is the official "first lady" of these places? The eye of man, or, what is of more importance, of woman, has not seen any such person.

But in Washington, to a considerable extent, etiquette and precedence do really present "live" social questions. The right (derived from official position) to go in to dinner before another, the right to sit in a particular seat, or in a certain proximity to a certain seat, to stand "above" or "below" a fellow-creature, to be visited first, are really valuable rights, which are much thought about, discussed, and even quarrelled over. A theory even

of Washington etiquette has been evolved on the spot, and a very respectable theory too, based, like the Constitution, upon the Federal connection of sovereign States. There is on the one side the Federal Union, which represents the delegated powers of sovereign States. On the other hand are the States themselves, of which the Federal Government is itself the creature. Here we have two great fountains of social rank and honor, which must come before everything else. Consequently we have at the head of this social hierarchy the President and the "first lady," and then the Cabinet, Senators, and Supreme Court judges. Congressmen, who represent neither a State nor the whole country, but merely a "district," clearly come last, and in fact there are not many Congressmen or Congressmen's wives who go much into "society" in Washington. They are not troubled by their low rank in the theoretic scale so much as by their low salaries and unfamiliarity with "society" at home, for, in the "district," society is usually the luxury of the rich.

The theory, however, is not perfect when we come to details, for it has the same inherent defects which the theory of our political institutions has. That is, when the States and the Federal Government come into collision, who is to decide between them? In the old States-rights times, of course, the social expert was inclined to take the view that the Senator's wife was a more important person than the Supreme Court judge's wife; but the political view of which this was a social corollary having been entirely exploded by a bloody war, which convulsed the country for four years, and cost millions of money and lives, the derived social theory has suffered a serious loss of popularity, and the rank of social representatives of States is not what it was before the cataclysm produced in Washington society by the fall of Sumter.

Washington etiquette has its real and at the same time its amusing side. It is made vastly more real than it would otherwise be by the presence of the foreign diplomatic body, who come from countries where these subjects are a matter not merely of study and speculation, but of breeding. They are born in an atmosphere in which etiquette naturally thrives, that is, in which there is a permanent official class the social relations of whose members make up a large part of daily existence. They bring with them to Washington an interest in matters of this sort which is an important contribution to its life. Besides this, Washington is the only place of any size in the United States in which society is in the hands of an official class, and it is a moral certainty that, when this is the case, the women will devote a good part of their time to settling such questions as seems to have arisen as to the Speaker's wife, but which are, we believe, very often in this country not permanently soluble. For most European countries have one great advantage over us in this matter—that the positions about which any controversy may arise are permanent. A king or queen, for instance, is always a king or queen; an archbishop is always an archbishop. But a "first lady in the land" who holds the position temporarily, or by a sort of

ad interim appointment, is a social solecism. As she must hold this or any other rank in the social hierarchy in Washington by virtue of her position in the family of some officeholder, the rank has to come to an end when his official life terminates. She would then become ex-first lady; but the women have never shown any inclination to tolerate any such rank, in the way that men do among themselves. There would, in fact, be a certain absurdity in saying of any one that she was the first lady of the land last year, or has a chance of becoming first lady if her husband's still-hunt for the Presidency succeeds. The termination of official life at Washington remits the whole family to the social position they occupied before, and the contrast between the two is sometimes very great. These facts have the effect of introducing a spirit of Christian charity into Washington society, and lead those who carry it on and understand it best not to bear too hard upon points at issue, however grave in themselves.

EDWARD LASKER.

THOSE who made Dr. Lasker's acquaintance after his arrival in the United States last summer must have been struck with the singular contrast between his appearance and his reputation. They saw a man of diminutive stature, of feeble, almost inaudible voice, of diffident, shrinking manner; and they may have found it difficult to believe that this was the bold parliamentary leader who had stood in the front of important political movements, the orator whose trenchant and lucid eloquence had won the enthusiastic applause of a great people and defied the most powerful minister of our time, and the profound jurist and large-minded statesman who had shaped the laws of a great empire. But what was seen here of Lasker was merely the wreck of his former self. The overwork and the anxieties of his public life had ruined his physical and mental constitution, and he had come here only to seek rest and health. There seemed, indeed, to be signs of recovery, and now and then the wealth of his information and the acuteness of his mind would show forth in quiet conversation, or in an occasional striking remark in a public address. But while he had a lingering hope of being able to resume his duties in a short time, the thought that his career might soon be ended not unfrequently came to him as well as to his friends.

In Lasker the German people have lost one of their truest and purest as well as most useful servants. His public spirit was first stirred by the revolutionary upheavals in 1848, when he was but a youth of nineteen. But for thirteen years afterward he devoted himself to a thorough preparation for legal practice, upon which, however, he never entered. He first attracted attention between 1861 and 1864, through some essays on constitutional law and public administration, and in 1865 he was elected to a seat in the Prussian Landtag. A year later came the war with Austria and the North German Confederation. Bismarck, who had until then been looked upon as the very embodiment of ab-

solutism, suddenly became the embodiment of the national idea and the idol of the people. To complete the work of German unity, he needed popular support, and to that end he leaned upon the Liberals. The "National-Liberal" party was formed, and Lasker became at once one of its foremost leaders. To the great work of national organization which then began, he brought the warmest zeal, an indefatigable industry, and all the resources of his vast legal knowledge and sagacity. Nobody equalled him in the discussion of constitutional and kindred questions. Every branch of the legislation of that period bears the stamp of his mind. The *entente cordiale* between him and Bismarck became proverbial. But it was not destined to last.

After the French war of 1870-'71, and the establishment of the German Empire, Bismarck regarded his alliance with the liberal sentiment of the country as no longer a necessity. His aim was now to secure to the monarchy the greatest possible power within, and in the pursuit of this object the autocratic tendencies of his nature came sharply into play. Men like Lasker, on the other hand, while always ready to support him in every measure necessary to strengthen national unity, demanded a government constitutional in spirit as well as in form. He sustained Bismarck in the "Kulturkampf," in his foreign policy, and even in his measures against the Socialists. But he insisted upon constitutional government, and vigorously opposed the Chancellor's economic schemes, especially his sudden turn in favor of protection. And when the National-Liberals went further in the way of accommodation and compromise with Bismarck's new plans than he thought compatible with his principles, he "seceded" from his party and joined the Parliamentary group standing between the National-Liberals and the Progressists. No sooner was the *entente cordiale* dissolved than Bismarck pursued him with that ruthless bitterness which he feels toward those who followed him once and will follow him no longer. But all the Chancellor's invectives and sarcasms could not suppress him. Lasker achieved, perhaps, his greatest popularity when he, with singular power and fearlessness, attacked, in the persons of high officers of the Government and members of the nobility, that spirit of corruption and swindling speculation which, after the French war, swept over Germany.

However, the contest was unequal. Bismarck, entrenched in power and at all times able to point to the immense services he had rendered to his country, proved in a certain sense an invulnerable antagonist, while the Opposition was disunited and irresolute. Lasker, who had a strong sentimental touch in his character, suffered in his heart from a warfare which he would have been too happy to avoid. And then came over him, as well as over many of the old Liberals, that feeling of lassitude and despondency to which those engaged in an apparently hopeless contest not unfrequently succumb. He saw that as long as the old Emperor and Bismarck lived, Germany would remain in a state of torpid expectancy, and that no effort could materially improve the situation until a change of persons in the highest places should occur in the

natural course of things. That change he did not live to see.

Lasker will be remembered in Germany not only as a brilliant orator and a wise legislator, but as a man of unspotted purity of life, of the warmest patriotism, and of that unquestionable disinterestedness of motive which makes a public character especially dear to the popular heart. He was a Jew, and his death is not unlikely to excite in Germany a fresh feeling of disgust and shame at those anti Semitic scandals which caused the keenest sorrow to this eminent citizen during the last years of his life.

THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 20.

READERS of the *Nation* who are interested in English affairs must have noticed the agitation which has sprung up (with apparent suddenness) about the dwellings of the poor. Will you allow me to make one or two observations upon a phase of English feeling or opinion which is remarkable in itself, and is still more noteworthy as a sign or part of a general social movement?

First. The agitation about housing the poor arises not from suffering, but from sympathy with suffering. The movement has derived support from the most different sides. Statesmanship is represented by Mr. Bright, by Lord Salisbury, and (odd though the juxtaposition sounds) by Mr. Chamberlain. English philanthropy speaks appropriately through the Earl of Shaftesbury and Miss Octavia Hill. The experience, the humanity, and, I must add, the rhetorical inaccuracy of the clergy, find utterance in the appeals of the Rev. Brooke Lambert, the Rev. A. Mearns, and the Rev. Stopford Brooke, while the imaginative sympathy of literary men expresses itself in Mr. Sims's pictures of "Horrible London," and in the articles of the *Pull Mall Gazette*, which breathe the noble humanity and the enthusiastic inexperience of youthful democrats. One may indeed fairly say that the sufferings of the poor have enlisted the sympathy of every class but one. One class alone has given no sign: the poor, whose "Bitter Cry" is conventionally supposed to have aroused the rich from a state of sleepy inattention, have scarcely uttered a word. Costermongers or paupers cannot, it may be suggested, write to the *Times* or the *Nineteenth Century*. This is partially true (though I am not quite certain that Mr. Knowles would not pay a hand, some price for an ill-spelled letter from a genuine costermonger); but it is not the whole truth. The poor in England, as in every free country, find methods of making known their misery or discontent. When Mr. Lowe attempted to tax lucifer matches, he found that a class whose existence was unknown to most M. P's. could proclaim with more than sufficient emphasis their (probably ill-founded) objection to a new impost. If the mass of London poor had experienced any new or (what is practically the same thing) any acute grievance, they would have made their bitter cry audible from their own mouths. That excellent philanthropist, Mr. Brooke Lambert, would perhaps do well to note that "Esau's Cry" was raised by Esau and not by a sympathetic bystander. The silence of the poor, contrasted with the vehement complaints of their friends, is a fact of unspeakable importance.

Nothing, let me assure your readers, is further from my intention than to say or to hint that London does not abound in dwellings—if dwellings they can be called—utterly unfit for the habita-

tion of civilized human beings. It is unfortunately but too easy to believe Professor Huxley's assertion, that in England many men and women lead lives more wretched than the lives of savages. On the existence of such wretchedness, the fact to which I have called attention, namely, the silence of the poor themselves, throws no doubt. But the fact has, nevertheless, a twofold significance. It attests in the first place the immense influence in modern society of sympathetic emotion. Christianity and civilization have, after the lapse of long years, produced an effect on human character of which politicians and economists have not taken sufficient account. All the influences which we sum up under the name of peaceful progress have, in countries such as England, produced a state of sentiment under which large bodies of men feel so keenly the obvious and the palpable pains of others, as to be at once impelled to make every effort, reasonable, or unreasonable, to get such pains alleviated or removed. Of the thousands who have read Mr. Sims's pictures of "Horrible London," we may feel sure that the vast majority felt at once that the mere knowledge of such horrors was so painful that they "ought" to be removed. The existence, however, of this general indignation and suffering makes it necessary to modify the received theory of revolutionary changes—namely, that they arise from the passion and effort of classes who can no longer bear the burden of grievances which are becoming intolerable. This theory, which may have squared with the facts of early civilization, applies, as we now see, very imperfectly to modern society. Social convulsions may arise quite as often from indignation at suffering as from suffering itself. Slavery was abolished, not by men who feared to be sold or flogged, but by men who could not bear to think that other persons should be exposed to sale and torture; and slavery might have existed to this day in Jamaica and in South Carolina had its abolition depended upon the energy or the indignation of the slaves. In the England of the nineteenth century innovation is quite as likely to arise from the sympathy of the rich as from the grievances or from the political power of the poor. Revolution may come from above just as well as from below.

That the "Bitter Cry," again, of which we have heard so much, does not come from the poor themselves, does raise the important practical question whether it is the sufferings of the poor, or the knowledge of these sufferings by the rich, which is new. The topic is one on which any impartial man would be slow to pronounce a confident opinion. When, however, assertions are made which imply that the accumulation of wealth has in England been unaccompanied by its due diffusion, there is nothing unreasonable in asking for distinct proof that allegations, on the face of them improbable, are actually true. Some of the best judges seem greatly to doubt whether the idea that the position of the poor is deteriorating is more than a delusion. Mr. Bright is assuredly not indifferent to the physical condition of the laboring classes, yet the day's papers contain the expression by him of the opinion, which he has often enough before avowed, that "the physical condition, the health, the intelligence, the comfort of the homes, and the general contentment throughout the whole of the country, vastly surpass that which prevailed forty or fifty years ago." He almost in effect repeats the dictum attributed to Macaulay: "For fifty years I have heard of nothing but decay and I have seen nothing but progress"; and Mr. Bright is, be it noted, the statesman who, not a year ago, forced the condition of dwellings for the poor on the notice of the nation. He may perhaps, however, be termed an optimist. Let us take, then, the judgment

of one whose views of philanthropy are not derived from the school of Mr. Bright. Lord Shaftesbury makes the present crisis an opportunity for referring to the address by Mr. Giffen on the "Progress of the Working Classes." He "ventures to express a hearty concurrence with the statements of that admirable paper," and adds the pregnant remark: "The enormous capital now held by the cooperative associations in fact which Mr. Giffen appears to have omitted, is a most striking and satisfactory proof of what can be achieved by the energies of active, intelligent, self-relying, and thrifty men."

The thoughts suggested by Mr. Bright and Lord Shaftesbury must weigh heavily with every careful critic of the movement which I am criticising, but they will hardly at the present moment exert much influence over English opinion. The immediate excitement of the public is grounded on emotion. A gust of feeling has passed over the face of English society. The surface, at least, is moved; no one can tell for certain how far the depths of English feeling are touched. The emotional nature of the agitation for housing the poor is apparent in more ways than one. The "Bitter Cry," "Horrible London," "Esau's Cry," and the like, are themselves cries, not arguments. They are intended to be the war cries of a crusade against misery. They betray the fact that the new crusaders, like the old, hardly know the way to their journey's end, or understand the difficulties and perils which they are destined to meet on their march. A curious proof of this is that those who appeal to the public for legislative or other interference on behalf of the poor, constantly confuse under one term—"the poor"—two totally different classes, the artisans, namely, of our great towns, and persons who, from their own fault or otherwise, have sunk to a condition little if at all better than that of paupers. To lump together workmen and outcasts under the misleading name, "the poor," can lead to nothing but confusion of thought and consequent mistakes of action. Yet it is, I think, palpable to any one who even glances through the letters and articles which have excited the feelings of the public, that the force of many appeals to sentiment lies in arguments which imply that pictures of the outcast poor, or (to use Mr. Bright's term) "the residuum," have some application to the whole body of the artisans or laborers who crowd our cities. There are other signs that sentiment or emotion has for the moment made many of the public incapable of seeing plain facts as they are. Mr. Brooke Lambert's "Esau's Cry" is in the main a very sensible and temperate article, of which the merits are likely to be concealed under an inappropriate and not very sensible title. But even a man so full of good sense as Mr. Lambert hazards the assertion that, "in 1866-68, the Fenian outbreak seemed not unlikely to have its counterpart in an English uprising." We are here upon the ground not of speculation but of history, and one may confidently say that the threatened English uprising of 1868 was unknown to almost every Englishman who lived through the not very exciting crisis of the Conservative Reform Bill. The breaking down of the Park railings can hardly be regarded as a serious menace of civil war by any one who looks back upon past events with the calmness of an historical critic. Mr. Brooke Lambert's view is, we suspect, distorted by the feeling of the moment. That a man who is himself writing with a view to correct exaggeration should himself be so biased by the feeling of the day, is a striking proof how great is the strength of that feeling.

Secondly. The agitation about housing the poor is merely a part and sign of a general social

movement. The immediate burst of feeling which has forced the condition of the outcast poor upon the attention of the public is sudden, and may be transitory or superficial. But this momentary indignation at the miseries of the lowest class of the population is, after all, merely the latest expression of two sentiments or convictions, which (whether well founded or not) have gradually impressed themselves upon large bodies of Englishmen. The first of these is, that the mass of the people ought to share far more fully than they do, not only in the material benefits, but also in the enjoyments, of civilization. The second is, that the power of the state affords a proper instrument whereby to insure to the mass of the people their fair share in the comforts and pleasures of life. In other words, what may be termed the fundamental ideas of socialism have touched the conscience of many among well-to-do Englishmen. How deeply these notions have penetrated no one can with confidence affirm. My present object is simply to point out the hold obtained in modern England by notions which, thirty years ago, would have been denounced as socialistic, and which, because they savored of socialism, would have been scouted by every educated man of common sense. The plain truth is, that any one who can look back to 1848, and cares to trace the course of opinion, will, if he looks facts in the face, recognize that since that year of revolutions a change has taken place in the average tone of English opinion, which may in the course of a few years more amount to something like an intellectual and moral revolution. The idea prevalent at that date among all Liberals, and, though less markedly, among ordinary Conservatives, was the notion—a notion, I ought fairly to add, in which there appears to me to be far more truth than is now generally acknowledged—that individual and national prosperity could be secured only by individual freedom, and that, as a necessary consequence, the course of true statesmanship was to minimize in every legitimate manner the interference of the state.

How strong was this sentiment may be seen in all the literature of 1848-54. Maurice, Kingsley, and their followers incurred, thirty or thirty-five years ago, far more discredit with many classes by their Christian socialism than by what would now be termed their very orthodox heterodoxy. The Exhibition of 1851 was the public celebration, so to speak, of the triumph of free trade, and of all the ideas of progress of which free trade was, as it were, the outward and visible sign. When in 1853-54 the Crimean war overtaxed the energy of a military and administrative system which was apparently somewhat out of date, the general cry was that the errors of the Government officers ought to be corrected by lessons from the admirable energy and resource of private firms. The "Circumlocution Office," an expression which will long survive the memory of the book in which it occurs, is a permanent memorial of a past and almost forgotten state of opinion, under which men seriously believed that Government officials mainly employed their energies in checking the ardor and baffling the ingenuity of ingenious inventors. If historians want more solemn but certainly not more convincing evidence as to the state of feeling or opinion some thirty years back than can be given by Charles Dickens, they should turn to Buckle's first volume. The book was published in 1859, but the author of the 'History of Civilization' was emphatically the spokesman of 1851. The one moral of his work is, that the only way to promote progress is to trust in the energies of individuals and to distrust the interference of the state.

A cursory study of the statute-book is sufficient to show that the current of opinion has

for the last thirty years and more set exactly in the opposite direction to that in which Buckle and his generation held that it ought to flow. In all matters, great or small, the activity and the interference of the state have increased. The state has, under the Factory Acts and other enactments of the like nature, interfered with the labor of the people. The state has taken upon itself the responsibility for popular education. The state controls in many respects the carrying business of the country as conducted by railways. The state has undertaken the whole business of the telegraph companies. The state has in Ireland interfered to regulate the contract between landlord and tenant. Nor, in reckoning up the amount of intervention exercised by the state, must we confine our attention to powers exercised by the central government. It is a delusion to imagine that to extend the powers of local government is to diminish the powers of the state. The state interferes none the less truly when it interferes through local bodies, say a school board, than when it directly intervenes by means of a Government inspector. Take this fact into consideration, and you perceive at once that in modern England the sphere of state interference has, during the last thirty years, been widened to an extent which would have amazed and probably horrified the theorists or statesmen of 1848 or 1850. No one, further, can doubt that this continuous extension of the powers of the state is, in a country like England, the result of the set of public opinion. When we now find suggestions put forward that the state should undertake to house the people, we must recognize the fact that this demand, whether reasonable or unreasonable, wise or unwise, represents, even if it exaggerates, feelings or convictions which underlie what I have termed a social movement. In my future letters I shall, with your permission, say something as to the causes of this movement, and something also by way of criticism upon its tendencies.

A. V. DICEY.

THE CROWN PRINCE IN ROME.

THE GERMAN VIEW.

BERLIN, December 18, 1883.

FOR the last two weeks the public interest of Germany, if not of Europe, has centred in the visit of the Crown Prince to King Alfonso of Spain, and in his further visit to Rome. If there ever was a high political demonstration, it was this dreary winter voyage, with storms in the Mediterranean and snowfalls in Spain. The Prince is a very popular man, and eager for popularity; he likes to show himself in public and to be admired. It is the more easy for him to win golden opinions as he is a handsome man, of prepossessing manners, and a representative of the finest German type. To use a slang expression, he looks and acts as if he had been expressly prepared for the Spanish market. Apart from these personalities, an unmistakable hint was given to France, the effect of which was increased by the enthusiastic reception of the German Crown Prince by the Spanish people. Not a single dissonance disturbed his triumphal tour from Valencia to Madrid and Barcelona. There was good feeling all around, and even the Spanish republicans abstained from any demonstration calculated to jeopard the tact and good breeding of the nation as well as the feelings of its guest. From a political point of view the royal visit has had the desired effect. Not that an alliance with Spain has been entered into (which under any circumstances would be of no great material value), but the political and intellectual vassalage of Spain in respect to France has been broken, and Germany has, for the next war, at least, won a friend south of France.

The extension of the Crown Prince's trip to Rome took everybody by surprise. Not a word of it had leaked out when the telegraph first brought the news from Madrid. (Let me state, by the way, that in regard to secrecy no civil service is better organized than that of our Foreign Department. Woe to the officer who is not discreet, or who abuses the trust confided to him. His doom is sealed at once.) The plan of this Roman trip originated with and was carried out by Bismarck. Now imagine his wrath when it prematurely transpired by the blunder of one of the attachés of the Crown Prince's surroundings. As the official reporter of the movements of his master, he telegraphed from Madrid to Berlin, that the Crown Prince, before his return home, had been advised to pay a visit to the Pope in Rome. The official telegraphic bureau here published the news, which, considering the source from which it came, was of course regarded as correct, and made an immense impression all over Europe. Fully to appreciate its bearing, I must add, that on that same day the decree pardoning Bishop Blum of Limburg was published, and that it was even granted without any counter concessions from Rome. This giving-in astonished every one, and looked very much like an unconditional surrender to the insolent demands of the Roman see; and now the Crown Prince seemed to be chosen to conclude an ignominious peace. Thereupon all the official and officious hounds were let loose by Bismarck. Statements and counter statements, telegraphic orders and counter orders, created confusion and even bewilderment in political and non-political circles. There was a keen method in fabricating rumors, mixing truth with fiction, and leading public opinion astray.

I do not pretend to be initiated into Bismarck's plans, but his tactics were wonderfully successful. The spreading of all sorts of rumors and the obscuring of the real state of affairs made people still more suspicious and distrustful. I, however, have not doubted that from the beginning a visit of the Crown Prince had been planned to the King of Italy, and that it was to precede that to the Pope; but I cannot say what the Chancellor's designs were as to Rome, as I do not know his instructions. The painful impression of the first telegraphic despatches has already modified a part of the first programme, laying the greater stress on the Crown Prince's visit to the King of Italy at the Quirinal. Nevertheless, people here are astonished that Bismarck has dared to implicate the heir to the throne in negotiations which are of a rather doubtful character, and that he identifies the future ruler of Germany with his designs, thus rendering himself indispensable to him. The telegraph will inform you of the results of the Crown Prince's trip to Rome before this letter arrives. In the present complication of affairs, the negotiations with the Pope, if they should be resorted to, will have no immediate result. Thus everything will pass off smoothly and pleasantly. It would, indeed, be a strange spectacle to make the heir of a proud empire the harbinger of, or rather the humble petitioner for, peace before an overbearing Pope, who, if the European Powers better appreciated their vital interests, ought to be treated as a tenant at sufferance instead of a sovereign.

Our home policy is as disagreeable and unpleasant as it can be. I need not here again repeat that our leading men are steering in a reactionary course. What every lover of his country complains of is the tone in which important state questions are treated in the Landtag, and the frivolity and ill-temper which the Secretary of the Interior especially has intro-

duced into the debates. Mr. von Puttkamer is a gentleman of very indifferent ability, an awkward, narrow-minded, and insolent debater, and rather a reckless partisan than a statesman. Thus he injures the cause which he is appointed to defend, and ruins all measures which require statesmanlike arguments. The bitter tone of his personal attacks, the venomous slander of his adversaries, and the impotent rage of his feelings only tend to strengthen the Liberal cause. Even his Conservative supporters in and out of the Prussian Landtag do not dare to defend him, and often disavow him in their speeches and papers.

The other day a Mr. Stern, a Liberal deputy, made a motion to abolish open voting in the elections to the Landtag, and to substitute the secret ballot, which is the law of election for the Reichstag, and has thus far never given any trouble. The demand was as just as it could be; at all events it could not be treated as an experiment or a quite new principle, having already been engrafted on the statute-book more than seventeen years ago. The motive of Mr. Stern's motion was the fact that the Government of late had interfered with almost all the elections for the Landtag; that it had kept strict control of the vote of each of its officers, and that it had punished them in case of opposition to the Government's candidate. The large manufacturers treated their workmen in the same style; in short, the so-called free voting thus became a sham and a humbug worthy of the palmiest days of Louis Napoleon. Mr. von Puttkamer, of course, opposed the motion; but what are his reasons? "The right of voting," he says, "is a trust granted to the elector in the public interest; that right, therefore, can only find its expression in an open vote. He who enjoys the right of casting his vote should have the courage to exercise it publicly." In the same strain the minister intimated what he meant by courage. The Government, he continued, could not promote or distinguish an officer of whom it became known that he had rendered himself guilty of opposition or even of open hostility to the Government. Now, the officer's opposition to a governmental candidate can only become notorious by his public vote. In order to catch him, Puttkamer appeals to his sense of honor to make him vote publicly. By law even a minister cannot remove an officer, but whatever he can do to ruin him is and will be done, according to Puttkamer's confession. First, such a poor man for all time to come is left in the place which he occupied at the time of his offence. Next, he receives no Christmas gratuity, no increase of salary, no promotion, and, finally, to corrupt him or to break his stiff neck, he is very often sent to a smaller out-of-the-way town, where there are no schools, or to a place where living is dearer. It is the most infamous proceeding ever practised by an absolute Government, an outrageous corruption which extends its fangs to all parts of the country, and reaches several hundred thousands of clerks, railroad and telegraph employees, letter-carriers and teachers, this last class being most hated by the ministers. In keeping with this view, a Conservative leader openly declared in the Landtag that the employee who voted against the candidate of his employer, deceived the latter "cold-bloodedly," and that the secret ballot was the stepping-stone to deception and fraud. On the final vote on the measure, the minister obtained a small majority, as the National Liberals, with a blindness which comes near stupidity, and for reasons known only to themselves, joined the reactionary time-servers.

Mr. von Puttkamer, however, did not stop with the above sample of rigmorale. He con-

cluded his speech with the threat that Prussia would also take measures to have the secret ballot abolished for the elections to the Reichstag. This was a really amusing manoeuvre, by which he tried to please his master. The secret and universal suffrage for the Reichstag was introduced by Prince Bismarck himself for the purpose of winning over the masses, to the detriment of the middle classes (the "bourgeoisie"), which up to 1866 had resisted his policy. Now that the peasants and workmen by their votes have forfeited the confidence of the Chancellor, he proposes to invalidate their political power. In 1872 he contemptuously said of the indirect, three-class suffrage, that no absurder and meaner system had ever been concocted by the most stupid brains in any country; but now he finds it much better than universal suffrage, and tries to put down the latter by the former. On this question, however, the Reichstag, with the exception of the Conservatives, will be a unit in defending its rights, nor will it commit harikari when called upon to sacrifice its own dignity and honor. What the servile Bundesrath (Federal Council) will do, is perfectly irrelevant. Prince Bismarck may rest assured of the wisdom of Goethe's words: "Die ich rief die Geister, werd ich nun nicht los." His great mistake is that he blames the defeat of his pet measures upon the mode of election. The fault lies somewhere else; it lies in the system of his home policy. Even the most intricate contrivance of a new electioneering machine will not help him if his policy be not liberal, and in favor, not of a class, but of the whole people. Mr. von Puttkamer is only his poor tool; used to-day, it will to-morrow be mercilessly thrown away.

THE ITALIAN (REPUBLICAN) VIEW.

ROME, December 19.

Of course the great event of the day, and indeed the only event of the year, is the arrival of the Crown Prince of Germany in Rome, where the reception festivals, of which I spare you a description (as all the official receptions given in the same city resemble one another like two teardrops), are as magnificent as royal lavishness and municipal capacity for spending public money can make them.

This is not the first visit of "Fritz" to the Eternal City, as it used to be called in the old poetic days: for, as Leo XIII. reminded him, he came to Rome just thirty years ago, on the very day when he, Monsignor Pecci, was created Cardinal by Pío Nono. Again he visited Rome, the capital of united Italy, for the funeral of King Victor Emmanuel, in 1878, and was then, without exception, the most popular of all the guests, crowned, crownless, or awaiting crowns; and no pains were spared on the part of Italians, from every province and of all parties save one, to welcome with grateful homage the representative of that great Power which, in crushing the Second Empire at Sedan, had restored Rome to Italy, even as at Sadowa it had freed Venice from the chains of Austria. To Italian gratitude for these inestimable boons was added genuine admiration for the haughty Chancellor who defied the spiritual, even as he had destroyed the temporal, power of the Papacy. To the Crown Prince in Rome, as to his imperial father in Milan, was yielded the most unanimous and genuine homage that a southern race can lavish in an hour of true enthusiasm.

But now this popular element is absent from to-day's reception. If you read the non official telegrams from Genoa, you will learn how imposing was the official ceremony, how picturesque the meeting of the squadrons, how numerous the concourse of princes, courtiers, prefects,

state, provincial, and municipal authorities, but of a welcome by the proud Ligurians, or of the workmen of Genoa, foremost in all patriotic work or demonstrations, never a word. Even so in Rome. When last the Crown Prince arrived at the station, you could have walked literally on the people's heads, and the parting salutations were even more significant. Now, nothing that is not strictly official marks the Prince's coming and going; and since his visit to the Vatican there is visible hostility on the faces, in the gestures of many, while the Liberal press is unanimous and out spoken in its censure. "Yesterday he came as a friend," say the people, "a friend of ours and of liberty; now, instead, he comes as the friend of our enemies, of the Pope and of Austria, and who is not for us is against us." The Italo-Austro-Hungarian-German alliance has long been recognized by the thinking and reading portion of the community as an accomplished fact, but none the less a fact abhorrent to the Italians in general, as far as Austria is concerned, while, for the great uneducated public it was deemed a thing too monstrous to be possible, so that always it has sufficed for a newspaper or for a popular orator to speak of King Humbert as the "Austrian Colonel," to arouse a feeling of aversion against the otherwise not unpopular young King. He is, in fact, Colonel of the most hated of Austrian names: Haynau Regiment.

But this is not the worst. That the Crown Prince is a guest at the Quirinal in the great palace or the small courts for nothing, and as such is received with all honors at the Vatican, signifies that the challenge between Church and state has been withdrawn, and that the principals have shaken hands on the ground without a combat. That this would be the case was a foregone conclusion in the minds of many, when Pío Nono and Victor Emmanuel, dying within a month of each other, were succeeded by two such very moderate men as King Humbert and Leo XIII. But for the violent opposition, scarcely stopping short of actual violence, of the Jesuits and their partisans, Leo XIII. would have blessed the Roman populace from the outer balcony on his accession—in fact, all the scaffoldings and decorations were prepared, and only removed by the hostile faction at the last moment. It was thought, indeed, that they were going to make a fresh stand for the recuperation of the temporal power; but these true children of darkness were wiser in their generation than the children of light, knew better the character, education, and tendencies of the new royal family, and of the ministers that were likely to direct the helm of state. Nothing short of a miracle could, they were well aware, unite again the crown of the Caesars with the tiara of the Pope; but sufficient patience and clever manoeuvring might, in a not far off period, restore to the Roman Catholic clergy the schools and the government of the municipalities, which is tantamount to handing over to the Church of Rome the education of the young generations and the finances of the state. Hence their cry of no surrender, a tame repetition of old Pío's *non possumus*. The Pope must remain a prisoner in the Vatican, all good Catholics must muster in full strength at the provincial and municipal elections—these being purely administrative and implying no allegiance to the usurping King; but the old programme, "neither electors nor elected" (to the Italian National Parliament), must remain intact for the present at least. On their side, they had and have a silent, almost invisible, but all-powerful ally in Queen Margaret, a true scion of the old brave, bigoted House of Savoy, who would rejoice, were it possible, to send freethinkers and republicans to the stake, as in the old Waldensian

days, and who, this being impossible, contents herself by bringing up the future King of Italy in the way the Jesuits would have him go, leaving his kingly father and tutors free in all else regarding his education.

It is difficult to exaggerate the amount of ground won back by the clergy since the death of Pio Nono, and since—alas! we must say—the advent of the Left to power. Six years ago a religious procession in the public streets was a thing unheard of, save perhaps in the most besotted quarters of Naples; now, this very year, the *Corpus Domini* processions have been renewed with all their old pomp. In many of the public schools, whence religious instruction had been banished, it has been restored—this being a simple consequence of the triumph of the Catholic party at the electoral urns of the provinces and the communes, as the municipal and the provincial councils control the expenses of the primary schools. All that I assert is proved by the statistics of the late elections, and is indeed a public and acknowledged fact. At the present moment, the visit of the Crown Prince of Germany to-day to the Quirinal, to-morrow to the Vatican, is claimed by each side as a victory. The partisans of the Vatican say that the future Emperor of Germany came expressly to Rome to treat personally with the Pope and secure peace for the future between Church and state in Germany; and that as he is not actually a guest at the Quirinal, but only at an adjoining palace, as he is a Protestant and not a Catholic sovereign, the Pope has gained all and given nothing. The Prince could, as his imperial father did before him, have visited the King of Italy in any other city of his kingdom, but the Pope could only be seen in Rome, or, more precisely, in the Vatican; consequently, his journey to Rome is taken expressly to do honor to and execute his business with the Pope. The state party says, on the contrary: The Emperor of Germany has found it in his interest, as we find it in ours, to enter into an alliance, and his son comes to our capital to make the fact patent to the world. In no former time would a royal guest of ours have been received at the Vatican. That the future Emperor of Germany is so received to-day, proves that the necessity of recognizing the kingdom of Italy is finally acknowledged.

Both parties are, to a certain extent, in the right, and the popular party answers: Divide the honors and the spoils between you; what we see clearly is that you are all allied together. And they chant the old war hymn of Mameli:

"Un sol campo hanno i popoli,
Ed un sol campo i re."

And though the outward signs are not as visible or as audible as in the olden days, the real Liberal, radical party is strengthening and increasing daily, organizing its forces, counting its numbers, preparing and hoarding its material. Divided as are the Liberals into unitarian republicans, federalistic republicans, and socialists, they have sufficiently comprehended where lie the chances of victory to merge their private aspirations so as to recruit a disciplined army to fight for the common cause. Death itself, it is true, seems to have become the ally of their adversaries. Of the old revolutionary leaders scarcely one is left on the field: Mazzini, Cattaneo, Garibaldi dead, but not taken before their time; Alberto Mario—in a certain sense the representative of them all—cut down in his prime. Of the old guard you may say but Fabrizi and Bertani are left, past seventy both, both honest and independent members of Parliament. The last great meeting at Bologna, however, when the Fascio of the Democracy was formed, shows at one and the same time the strength of numbers and the discipline of the

union. Nor must it be forgotten that they reckon in their ranks men like Saffi (who, by the way, has just completed his introduction to the thirteenth volume of Mazzini's works) and old Campanella, recognized as the continuators of the strictly Unitarian Republican programme.

This explains why, while at Rome King, court, Government authorities, and placemen, are congratulating each other on the now certitude of an Austro-Hungarian-Italo-Germanic alliance, in all the chief cities of Italy, and especially in Leghorn, Sassari, and Bologna, the people are celebrating the anniversary of the execution of Overdank, the last victim hung on an Austrian gibbet at Trieste. The monarchists are counting on the great pilgrimage to the tomb of Victor Emmanuel in January. But no one takes *au sérieux* as a demonstration of loyalty the fact that crowds will make a pleasure excursion to Rome for 10, 16, 20 lire the round trip.

M. W.

CORFU AND ITS SAINTS.

CORFU, November 18, 1883.

WE have held high festival to-day. In memory of a deliverance from the plague in 1630, the relics of St. Spiridion have been carried through the streets and around the Esplanade in solemn procession, with military music and a guard of honor, banners, lanterns, and gigantic candles, priests wearing gorgeous robes of precious old Venetian satin and brocade, and the Prefect and other authorities walking bare-headed. The saint's body, which was plainly visible through the glass casket, is in a fair state of preservation after the fifteen centuries that have elapsed since its first burial. It lacks only one arm, which is in Rome—for as St. Spiridion, who was Archbishop of Tremithus in Cyprus, and flourished at the Council of Nice, lived before the separation of the churches, his memory is as much venerated by Latins as by Orientals. Though in appearance like a mummy, it is not hard and dry, but has somewhat the consistency of India rubber, and this elasticity has enabled it to endure the numerous shocks to which it has been and is still subjected, for as it was carried in erect posture it swayed from side to side against the glass.

The journey of the saint from Constantinople to Corfu was a far ruder one. The piety of the Byzantine Emperors had collected in the capital of Eastern Christendom nearly all the important relics of the Early Church. Some were perhaps fictitious; many, such as they might be, were undoubtedly genuine. What was thought the most valuable booty of the Crusaders when they took Constantinople was the quantity of relics and holy objects which they obtained, which they sent home as gifts without price. From this source came nearly all the relics of the Passion now in Western Europe, and most of those relating to the Saviour or the Virgin. Their authentic history from that date may be traced in the documents published by the Comte de Riant. In some cases the Greeks succeeded in concealing the true relics, and the Latins took only what had been cleverly substituted; in others a forgery was made after the evacuation of the city, for the benefit of the Greeks. When the Turks came, two and a half centuries later, some relics escaped the conqueror, others were destroyed, and others seized for the sake of their jewelled reliquaries. The arm of John the Baptist, for instance, now in the chapel of the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, we know to be the same that was so long venerated at Constantinople in Byzantine times. Discovered many years after in the Sultan's treasury, it was given as a present to the Grand Master of the Knights at Rhodes, was taken thence to Malta, and brought to Russia by the Emperor Paul, who

was the last independent Grand Master of the Knights of Malta.

The body of St. Spiridion, it seems, escaped seizure, and, together with that of St. Theodora, (wife of the Emperor Theophilus the Iconoclast), was brought to Corfu by a certain pious George Calocheretti. In order to conceal the relics from the Turks, they were stuffed into provender bags and covered with straw, and thus passed safely to the coast of Epirus as forage for the mule who bore them. The two saints brought the pious George wealth and happiness, and on his death were a precious legacy to his children. The body of St. Theodora was given to the community and now rests in the cathedral. That of St. Spiridion, after the Corfiotes had been worsted in legal proceedings to prevent it from being removed from the island, and the property of the Calocheretti family had been confirmed by a decree of the Venetian Senate, came to a certain Stamatello Bulgaris, of a well-known Corfiote family, as the dowry of his wife. In the Bulgaris family it has since remained, and has for nearly four hundred years furnished them with an unflinching income.

The church where the saint's body reposes belongs to the Bulgaris family, which always names one of its members as the head priest. The offerings, after expenses are paid, are naturally family property; and as the Corfiotes are a pious folk, and St. Spiridion, for his protection against pest and Turks, and for his numerous miracles, is deservedly popular, and the patron saint of the island, the coffers are never empty. "Che benche forestier egli sia, pe'llungo albergo, e per gli miracoli, si deve stimar cittadino," says old Marmora. The church is full of silver lamps and votive offerings, and the revenues are estimated at about \$10,000 a year. The present priest, still a young man, and the last male member of his branch, is said to have taken orders much against his will in order to save the property to the family. A fair portion goes to one member who has married an English clergyman—the gains of superstition thus devoted to nourish Protestant piety! Truly a proprietary saint—if one may so speak—is a very good thing. I have known of several others. The body of St. Anicetus, Pope, is, or was when I lived in Rome, in the rooms until lately used for the archives of the Council of Trent, the property of the Gallese family; and at least a part of the body of St. Philip Neri, the Oratorian, is the valued possession of Prince Massimo, in the room, now a chapel, where the saint raised from the dead the young Paul Massimo in 1651; but I doubt if either of these families draw a revenue therefrom.

St. Spiridion is not, however, the only saint of Corfu. The island boasts of St. Jason and St. Sospater, the disciples and even the kinsmen of St. Paul (Rom. xvi. 21), who introduced Christianity, and one of whom at least was martyred here. The church in which they are said to have preached is shown a little below the old basilica dedicated to the Virgin, one of the few remains of the ancient town, built on the ruins of a temple of Isis, showing how naturally the Isis worship passed into that of the Virgin. The church of St. Jason, however, is not of so early a date, but is a small Byzantine vaulted building resembling somewhat the Kutchuk Aya Sophia at Constantinople. With its two palm trees and a laurel over the gate of its half-ruined court, it presents a pretty picture, all the more interesting to us as it contains the tomb of the wife of the last Palæologus, and that of the latest Byzantine historian and diplomatist, Phranzes. Thomas Palæologus, the brother of the last Emperor, Constantine XIII., maintained himself for seven years in the Pelop-

ponnesus after the fall of Constantinople, and in 1460 was obliged to seek Venetian protection in Corfu, with his family and Piranzen, his faithful follower. Thomas, leaving his wife in Corfu, went on to Venice and Rome, and, bringing the head of St. Andrew as an acceptable present to the Pope, was recognized as the heir of Byzantium. His wife, Catharine, the daughter of Asan Zaccaria Centurione, a great lord in the Morea (we wonder if a relative of the great Genoese family of Centurione, that claims descent from Cornelius the Centurion), died suddenly just as she was about leaving Corfu. Her end was perhaps happier than if she had known the fate of her children. Helena, the former Queen of Servia, died a nun in Santa Maura; Zoe married a Russian Grand Duke, and her posterity became merged in the Polish family of Jagellon; Andrew made a wretched marriage in Rome and died childless; Manuel, like his uncle, Demetrius, surrendered to the Sultan, who gave him slaves and concubines. Of his two illegitimate sons, John died a Christian and was buried at the Patriarchate in Constantinople. The other, Andrew, became a Mussulman under the name of Mohammed. Within fifty years from the capture of Constantinople the name of Palæologus was extinct.

Phranzen, who had borne many woes, somewhat worse than death, no sooner arrived in Corfu than he became a monk, while his wife betook herself to a convent. Here, in his peaceful cell of Tarkhanotes, on the request of some noble Corfiotes, he wrote his sad and pathetic 'Chronicon,' which Warsberg justly calls the "first history of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire." A year after he had finished it he died, in 1478, at the age of 77; his last request was to be buried by the side of his exiled sovereign. The three tombs had been covered for centuries with whitewash, but the archaeological acumen of Baron Warsberg, the Austrian Consul (it was he who had charge of the expedition for refinding the frieze of Gul-Baktche, in Lycia, a year or so ago), added to the researches of Professor Romanos in the archives, found them out. He had the church cleaned, and verified the inscriptions.

But I have wandered far from what I set out with, which was to tell of the picturesque costumes, the lovely faces, and the beautiful figures we saw at the festival of St. Spiridon. The town is almost wholly Venetian and Italian, the country chiefly Greek, but there has been just that mixture of blood necessary for the production of an almost perfect type. Nowhere in Italy, and certainly nowhere in Greece, are such beautiful maidens and youths to be seen. Add to this the soft, sweet landscape, olive trees, and cypresses in proper proportion, pink roses climbing over every wall, the picturesque Venetian citadel, the hills and mountains of Albania, rosy in the sunset over a narrow strip of iridescent sea, and you have an unmatched picture. It is the real "Earthly Paradise," the realm of Alcinoüs. The costumes of every village differ. All are graceful and pretty, both of men and women. But as Corfu is the meeting place for the whole Adriatic coast, it is, in spite of its Venetian aspect, its civilization, and the band playing on the Esplanade, the most Oriental place this side of Constantinople. Here are old Turks in turban and robe, young Turks in fez and high-buttoned black coats, Softas in Mussulman clerical attire, weak, sad-eyed Montenegrins, fierce-looking, flat-headed, kerchiefed Albanian men, dirty Albanian women covered with embroidery made by that artistic race, Dalmatians and Greeks of all kinds and sorts.

It is a wonder travellers do not come here

now, but fortunately it is a little out of the beaten track; and, except English sportsmen, yachting and shooting on the Albanian coast, and a few pleasant people of weak constitutions, the ordinary tourist contents himself with a day or two, in which he scarcely discerns the real beauties of the island. Yet there are two excellent hotels, where one is well lodged, well fed, and well cared for at only twelve francs a day. There are good roads, fine walks and drives, and the opera every evening in the old building of the Venetian archives. Corfu is still as beautiful as when About wrote 'Germaine,' or even when Ulysses saw Nausicaa playing ball with her maids.

S.

Correspondence.

THE VOTING POWER OF STOCK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am glad to see in a late issue (No. 965), that you have taken up the subject of "the voting power of stock" in railroad corporations. It is one that has interested me for some time past, as a better remedy than that of the railroad commission now so much in vogue. Indeed, in December, 1882, I introduced a bill in the Legislature of this State (South Carolina) to carry out the views you now urge; but the popular cry then was for a railroad commission, with extreme power like that in Georgia, and I could not obtain a hearing for my plan. Will you allow me to add some considerations to those of your editorial?

Mr. Adams, in his book on the 'Railroad Problem,' observes that—

"The American railroad system may now be said to have passed, wholly or in part, through three distinct phases of growth, the limits of which are merged in each other, though the order of succession is sufficiently clear. First was the period of construction, beginning with the year 1830, and closing with the completion of the Pacific Railroad in 1869. Merged with this period and following upon it was that of active competition, which reached its fullest development in 1876. This naturally was followed by the period of combination, which first assumed a large and definite shape in 1873, and has since that been working itself out into something both definite and practical."

If we recall these periods pointed out by Mr. Adams we shall recollect that in the first—that is, the period of construction—railroads were projected and built without any general system, and mainly with a view to connect some two or three cities. They were built at first almost exclusively by subscriptions in money, material, and labor supplied along the route they followed. They were, in short, local roads run in the interest of the communities through which they passed, and were managed by local directors. But these roads, built as they were without system, came to compete with each other in a manner which soon exhausted their resources. The period of construction was forty years; that of competition was not ten. The period of competition, whether it was in itself connected with the financial crisis of 1873 or was merely contemporaneous with it, ended in universal railroad bankruptcy, and culminated in the receiver's dynasty, when the United States Courts became the managers of the railroad system of the country. Then came the sales under orders of court, at which the stocks and bonds which represented the savings of forty odd years were bought up by capitalists at ten and twenty cents on the dollar, and the public highways became, in the opinion of the few purchasers, private property. This was the inauguration of the present period of combination and consolidation, when the purposes for which the roads were orig-

nally built are subordinated to other interests, and their managements taken from local directors and given over to strangers. The crying evil of railroad management is precisely that of the real grievance of the Irish peasant—it is the control of local interests by absentees.

If, then, consolidation is the evil, we should seek our remedy in some measure calculated to counteract it. We should seek some measure to curb the dictation of the fifty-one one hundredths of stock. Fortunately, this is in the power of all those States which, as did Massachusetts and South Carolina, upon the decision of the Dartmouth College case, make it a part of their fundamental law, that all charters granted by them should be subject to amendment, alteration, or repeal, unless expressly exempted in the charters themselves.

The direction, then, in which I would seek remedies for railroad evils is in the amendment of our railroad charters; and in doing this (1) I would fix the number of directors of each board, and give them the sole power, acting as a board, to fix, change, or alter the rates and tariffs, and would require the rates so fixed or changed to be certified by the signatures of a majority of the board before any change or alteration should go into effect. (2) I would require that a majority, at least, of the directors should be residents of the State granting the charter, as is now required by several of the States—for instance, Massachusetts, Illinois, and Texas. (3) I would revive the provisions of the earlier railroad charters for the protection of minorities, by means of a scale of voting; and (4) I would adopt a mononomial plan of voting, so that each director should be voted for separately, and not upon a general ticket; and that in their election each share should have a vote for but one director.

Let me illustrate how this system would work. Suppose a road had a stock consisting of 18,000 shares, and that this road ran through eighteen towns. Under the usual system, by which each share has a vote on a general ticket, not one of these towns can secure a director or voice in the management of the road, unless it secures 51/100 of the stock, which, of course, will give it the entire control. Before a person or a community can have a word to say about the management of a railroad, he must be prepared to assume the responsibility of its entire control, and go to the cost of a purchase of a majority of the stock. But, under the mononomial plan, any one of the eighteen towns along the road, by securing one-eighteenth part of the stock, can be sure of a director, and a voice in the affairs of the company. The tendency of this system, it will be observed, would be to scatter and disperse the shares. It would add to their value; for, besides the dividends, it would give a substantial value to each share in its potential control in the management of the road. The result of the system would be that the stock would increase in value, and power to control would be returned to the holders of small amounts. In short, it would give the public a voice in the management of our highways. It would, at least, render it more difficult to "bear" the market, and give less occasion to do so, as a mere majority of the stock would not give the control it now does.

In this way I would provide for the management of our railroads in the interests of those who built them, by and through the means of the corporations themselves—from within, instead of from without, as by the system of railroad commissioners with power to fix rates. I would meet consolidation by disintegration. I would substitute "home rule" for the injurious control of absentees.

EDWARD MCCRADY, JR.

CHARLESTON, S. C., January 2, 1884.

EXECUTIVE GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg to offer "S. M. C." my sincere thanks. In political discussion, an opponent is almost as valuable as a supporter. The most discouraging thing is (*crede experto*) to go on for years and find nobody paying any attention to anything you say.

I read the article of M. de Laveleye with intense pleasure, as containing that with which I most heartily sympathize—a hopeful view of the prospects of the Republic in France. But I think "S. M. C." hardly represents his position fairly. He is meeting the complaint that the Deputies show "a lack of consistency as regards their resolutions; that they overthrow ministers too frequently, and thus render any stable government an impossibility"; and he argues that parliamentary government encounters the same difficulty in other countries, as Holland, Belgium, Italy, and England, though I think he overstates the case a good deal as to the latter. But this is very far from saying that executive government is not necessary. The history of France for a century is a struggle to obtain executive power strong enough to govern, and yet responsible to the public will. All the signs are that she must work out this problem under the alternative penalty of falling again under military despotism. But the weakest of these parliamentary governments is strong as compared with our system of practically no executive at all. We may well be thankful that we have not to deal with the political and social problems of Europe, but he would be a bold man who should assert that there are no questions in this country which require Government settlement. And I maintain that since the war, Congress has never been able to settle anything at all. There are some things which the people can do—the more the better; but there are others which, if society is to hold together, must be done by the Government.

To give the Cabinet seats in Congress would be to give the Executive, what it has not now, a voice as to the policy and conduct of the Government, and some power of resistance to the lobby. It does not necessarily follow that the Cabinet must resign when it differs from Congress any more than it does now. What the course of development of the measure would be can only be known by experiment, and to attempt to forecast it would require more of your space than I dare ask for. Of one thing I am sure, that the experiment would be heartily welcomed by the country, and would do more than anything else to indicate some way of bringing order out of our present chaos.

G. B.

BOSTON, January 5, 1884.

THE MORMON PROBLEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is not the difficulty in solving the Mormon problem in one sense an evidence of the excellence of our Government? Here is a community defying the laws and authority of the United States, engaged in the commission of a crime repulsive to all the civilized world, and yet such are the safeguards thrown about local self-government that the whole nation stands puzzled—uncertain how to punish the criminals or to abate the nuisance.

It is the same trouble that is found in enforcing a prohibition law, or laws against homicide in the South. Under our system of government, it is impossible to compel a community to be more moral than it chooses to be. Usually, the gradual diffusion of knowledge, the desire to have a good reputation with the outside world, and to grow in wealth and population, are all-powerful influences to bring such

communities up to the proper moral standard. But in Utah none of these influences are at work. Ignorance is their stronghold. They care nothing about their reputation abroad. They do not desire to grow in Gentile wealth or population. All they want is to be let alone. This is an anomalous state of affairs, and will doubtless demand an unusual remedy.

E. B. H.

BUTTE, MONTANA, December 26, 1883.

THE STUDY OF DIALECTIC GREEK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit one who is not engaged in teaching the classics to seek a little information from those that are, on a matter that may perhaps have some bearing on the discussion lately carried on in your columns. In our colleges and universities, so far as I am acquainted with the courses of study, the languages commonly taught are Latin, Greek, French, and German. Of these four, the much-assailed Greek is, beyond all question, far more difficult than any of the others. This will be granted by nearly every one, I imagine. Now, out of these four languages Greek is precisely the one in which the natural difficulty is increased by the study of *dialects*—at least so far as I know. In some instances boys are expected to come to college with some knowledge of Homer, the study of which is then carried on further, with perhaps other dialects added. I wish, therefore, to ask the following questions:

1. Is not the course in French and German in our colleges confined almost exclusively to the modern languages? Having myself taught these languages, I have noticed the catalogues of other colleges, and have never found any exception to the rule. In German, the acquisition of a vocabulary is certainly difficult enough to let us confine our students to modern German. Professor Whitney says, in the preface to the dictionary and notes prepared for his 'German Reader': "To gain a tolerable mastery of the German vocabulary is so very serious a task, that he who undertakes it is fairly entitled to have its beginning made easy to him by special helps." Suppose, now, that after taking our students on till they were beginning to be able to pick their way along in Whitney's 'Reader,' with some little feeling that they were getting a hold on German, we set them to reading the 'Nibelungenlied,' or German of the time of Luther or Fritz Reuter; what would be the effect on them? Do we not feel, and act on the feeling too, that if they know the grammar well, and, as Whitney puts it, have "broken the back" of the modern German vocabulary, that is about as much as we have time for in our limited college courses, and that any dialectic study of German should be reserved for those who may wish to take this up afterward? And yet in Greek our colleges must teach Attic prose as the basis of all, the Tragedians (and certainly their vocabulary contains an immense amount for which prose gives no help), Herodotus (which can very well afford to be included, however), Homer (with his almost unending array of new forms, and new words, and new meanings), with perhaps Theocritus, and possibly a taste of still other dialectic writers.

2. The field of Attic Greek is certainly large enough to furnish abundant and profitable labor for all the time American young men spend at college; and if this time were trebled, the remark would still be true. Would not a young man leave college with as liberal and broad an education in Greek if he were allowed to do in this difficult language what is done in the far easier German, viz.: confine his study to that form of the Greek in which the foundation must ever be laid, reading more of its authors and

larger amounts from them? He would be studying excellent Greek, would be associating with thinking minds, and would have more of a feeling that he *knew* Greek and could *read* it without having to keep a dictionary everlastingly chained to his elbow. Then, if he chose to continue his Greek after leaving college, he could take up the dialects to suit himself.

3. Is it not possible that this system of teaching may have something to do with the reaction against Greek, which usually has to bear alone the brunt of the attacks upon classical studies? Is not the student's command over Greek weakened by his being obliged to scatter his strength over so much ground? What student of a language does not look forward with pleasure to the time when he can be emancipated from the drudgery of incessant dictionary work? This is the way in which he tests his knowledge. But in Greek, although it is a pretty huge undertaking to master "tolerably" the vocabulary of Attic prose, he finds himself forced to undertake prose, poetry, and dialects, and, if the truth were told, largely because their teachers would be afraid to send out their catalogues without these time-honored names. Hans Andersen, in his inimitable story, "The Emperor's New Clothes," hit off the true secret of an immense deal of humbug: for fear of being thought "dumm," or unfit for their office, men are afraid to have the courage of their convictions, and profess to find an invisible dress extremely beautiful.—Respectfully,

E. M. S.

Notes.

MR. EDWARD ARMITAGE'S 'Lectures on Painting,' delivered to the students of the Royal Academy, we noticed, a few weeks ago, from the London edition of Trübner & Co. The Messrs. Putnam have now reprinted this work in a very substantial and attractive manner for the American market.

Mr. Gilmour's very entertaining work, 'Among the Mongols,' which we reviewed last week, naming the English publishers, had already been printed in this country by the American Tract Society, which purchased the plates of the original edition.

The 'Life of Cobbett,' by Mr. Robert Waters, to which Cobbett's 'Grammar of the English Language' was appended, is also among the works we have recently mentioned. But we can now add that the Grammar has been issued separately for such as may need it (New York: James W. Pratt). The form of Cobbett's work is what gives it its chief value in the teaching of what is commonly a repulsive study. Teachers can profit by this who may be unable to comment independently either on his text or on Mr. Waters's notes.

The American Unitarian Association (Boston) have yielded to a demand for a dollar edition of the complete works of the late Dr. Orville Dewey, uniform with that already put forth in the case of Doctor Channing. The volume, with its index, fills 800 pages 8vo. A very brief sketch of Doctor Dewey's life, prefixed to the sermons, makes no allusion to his contact and conflict with the greatest moral reform of his time.

Miss Sarah E. Titcomb's 'Early New England People'—an informal genealogical repository of facts concerning a large number of related families—has been transferred, for the sale of the remainder of the edition, to Mr. Charles L. Woodward, of this city.

Three more volumes extend to the eleventh the complete works of Emerson (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The ninth embraces the

Poems, not omitting, we are glad to see, some at least of the epigraphic verses scattered through the prose volumes; and it is further adorned with a steel portrait of Emerson in his latter years. To the tenth volume the title 'Lectures and Biographical Sketches' has been given. In this medley are gathered (with appropriate indications of the source) writings from the *Dial*, with sundry addresses and descriptions of Emerson's contemporaries—among these the posthumous publications in the *Atlantic* on Dr. Ripley, his aunt Mary Moody Emerson, etc. Four pages on the Chardon Street Convention of 1840 are a marvel of condensed characterization and "reporting." The last volume, 'Miscellanies,' has also a number of addresses, most of them political and relating to slavery, and some matter hitherto unpublished. The town bi-centenary discourse at Concord in 1835 has a peculiar interest, and, together with the short paper just named, and the longer 'Historic Notes of Life and Letters in New England,' shows possibilities of historical presentation that were, unhappily, destined never to be more fully realized.

The second series of University Studies, edited, at the Johns Hopkins University, by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, will shortly be begun in a number entitled "New Methods of Study in History," by the editor (his paper read before the Social Science Association at Saratoga last September). Some of the more interesting and curious subjects announced to be treated in this series are, "Review of American Economic Literature since 1876" (B. J. Ramage); "History of Taxation in the United States, 1789-1816" (H. C. Adams); "The Irrepressible Conflict" (H. von Holst); "Indian Money as a Factor in New England Civilization" (W. B. Weedon); "Icaria: a chapter in the History of Communism" (Albert Shaw); and "Rudimentary Society among Boys: (1) Land Tenure, (2) Judicial Procedure" (John Johnson).

The enlarged number and novel complexion of the House of Representatives make the Congressional Directory for the Forty-eighth Congress, officially compiled by Mr. Ben. Perley Poore, an exceptional issue.

Speaking of Government publications, it may be news to some of our readers that James Anglin & Co., 1424 F Street, Washington, issue a monthly bulletin of them, free "to all dealers, book-buyers, and librarians." The prices are attached. The same service is performed, we think quarterly, by the *Publishers' Weekly* of this city, with more bibliographical accuracy.

The army worm and the cotton worm in particular are the subjects of the latest Bulletin of the Entomological Division of the Department of Agriculture, but certain tree-borers of the *Cossidae* family are honored with colored plates. Professor McMurthrie reports (also with illustrations) his microscopic examination, for fineness and tensile strength, of eight samples of silk grown in this country.

A pamphlet for free distribution, on "Silk Farming in Florida," by Mrs. Ellen Call Long, bears no indication of date or locality. But we recognize the compiler as having written more briefly on this subject for the *Florida Annual*, which we lately noticed.

Science begins its third volume and second year with a change in the typography and color of the cover, and also alters the scheme of its contents by omitting the customary "Weekly Summary of the Progress of Science," the classified work of many hands. This step is excused, in an editorial article discussing the past and future of this periodical, on the ground of a desire to popularize the contents by enhancing their readability. In this view, the omission is fully justified, while specialists will doubtless regret

to be deprived of the particular digests in which they were respectively interested. *Nature*, however, has done very well without them, and, speaking wholly from the layman's point of view, we criticised these, at the very beginning, as a bar to the popularity of *Science*.

We are glad to welcome the first numbers of *Woods and Forests*, a new weekly journal published in London by Mr. William Robinson, who is also the editor and publisher of the useful *London Garden*. The purpose of this new venture is to stimulate a love of planting, by furnishing accurate information on subjects of practical interest to the planter for use or ornament. *Woods and Forests* certainly meets a real want, and deserves every encouragement. It is the only journal in the English language, with the exception of the English *Journal of Forestry*, devoted exclusively to a subject which begins to attract wide attention in this country, where the need is felt of instruction and suggestions about methods of planting and the care of woodlands and ornamental trees. There is hardly room, however, yet for a corresponding American journal. *Woods and Forests* might, therefore, well be somewhat extended in its scope, and be made to supply American as well as English readers with information in regard to their trees and plantations. Mr. Robinson, it is safe to say, will be very grateful for any contribution from this country, or for any information about American forests or American trees.

Now is the season for new journalistic ventures. The most important that we have noticed is the quarterly *Rivista Storica Italiana* (Turin, Bocca), which is to treat of the history of the whole peninsula, previously existing historical journals having been local in character.

A very useful manual of Italian literature, coming down to the present decade, is that of K. Marquard Sauer, published under the title: 'Geschichte der italienischen Litteratur' (Leipzig, 1883), and forming a sequel to Engel's 'French Literature' and Nitschmann's 'Polish Literature.' Sauer's compendium is handy for the general reader, and discards all semblance of erudition, for the sake of rendering itself accessible to the popular mind. A large number of selections are interspersed in the form of translations from the authors spoken of, and Sauer himself often figures among the translators. In giving opinions he generally relies upon his own judgment. We can barely refer to his notice of Macchiavelli, who was, he says, the first to establish, in his 'Discorsi' and 'Principe,' a system of 'duplex morals,' giving numerous reasons for his opinion that civic must necessarily differ from political morality, since in politics one principle only is admissible, namely, that of utility. Macchiavelli insists, however, that the only aim of rulers must be the liberty and independence of their country, whether the means employed by them be moral or immoral. Sauer concurs with Settembrini in holding that the 'Principe,' with its Jesuitic tendency, was written simply to show the method by which, under existing circumstances, a demoralized nation could be raised from nothingness to political concord, unity, and significance; and that Macchiavelli, in composing the book, was impelled by no other than purely patriotic motives.

La Philosophie Positive is to be discontinued. Its editors, M. M. Robin and Wyrnoff, say that the passion for ideas which existed fifteen years ago, when it was founded by M. Littré, has passed away, and that the public is interested now in nothing that is not practical. Those who write and those who read are no longer

concerned with high scientific syntheses, and the review disappears before the general indifference for questions of philosophy. It would seem that the indifference which is felt towards this particular exponent of philosophy is even greater in England than in France; for *Nature*, in announcing its discontinuance, gives M. Wyrnoff as its editor and *La Revue Positive* as its name.

In the case of the one hundred and twenty-first issue of so old, so authoritative, and so unique a publication as the *Almanach de Gênes* (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), the editors themselves find it nearly as difficult to say anything fresh as does the reviewer. They display their consciousness of this by calling attention at some length to the slight put upon the value of the *Almanach* by those who think it a mere repository of princely genealogies, whereas, they say truly, its politico-statistical information is unsurpassed for accuracy. Relatively, the past year has been free from changes, the ministerial disturbances having been chiefly confined to France and the Rerian peninsula. But the census returns of various countries have been enlarged and are here made use of. In a single point, under the rubric of the United States, the editors are at fault, for Mr. David Davis is set down as Vice-President. The portraits this year are of the Duke and Duchess of Albany, Princess Victoria of Prussia, and Count Otto of Stolberg-Wernigerode.

—Somewhat more than two years ago, the city authorities of Boston permitted the printing of the first volume of Suffolk Deeds, the deeds, that is to say, of the county in which Boston is situated. The second volume of these "worn, mutilated, and [more or less] illegible" records has also, upon petition of the Suffolk bar, been printed, and was distributed just before the close of the past year. Extraordinary pains have been taken to insure textual accuracy by Mr. Wm. B. Trask, and Mr. John T. Hassam has contributed exhaustive indexes of grantors, grantees, "other persons," places, and miscellaneous. A few historically famous names, like those of Simon Bradstreet, Daniel Gookin, John Endicott, John Winthrop, Richard Bellingham, and Samuel Maverick, appear here; but the majority have a family rather than an individual interest. The Indian element of the colony makes itself visible in two or three instances, as in the sale of lands by Quoshamakin (Quochamatin), sachem or sagamore of Massachusetts. The negro puts in a single appearance, but much to his credit. "Bostian Ken" (*redacted* Sebastian Kajue or Keayne), "commonly called Bus Bus, Negro, of Dorchester, in New England," mortgages his house and land, with four and a half acres of standing wheat, to complete the purchase of one "Angola Negro," to whom Mrs. Anna Keayne had "sold his time for Eighteen pounds." Angola's "time of freedom" was to begin on the 10th day of the sixth month, 1656. On the 24th of December Mrs. Keayne ordered the mortgage cancelled. The mother country is constantly referred to in these deeds, coupled not seldom with valuable genealogical particulars. "Whereas," begins an instrument bearing date of June 22, 1654, "My honored and beloved father, Peeter Noys Late of Penton in the County of Hampshire in old Englaunde now of Suthbury in New England in the County of Midelsex Gent," etc. Only the southern counties, the index shows us, from Norwich to Bristol, are thus recorded. Some inns are mentioned, as the Golden Crown, Birch Lane, London; the Golden Key, Watling Street; the Ram's Head, Southwark. Not a few names of ships are preserved—a later *Mayflower* among them—with specific appella-

tions, of which several have become obsolete, while, on the other hand, it might be a fair inference that down to 1656 the term "snow," for example, had not come into use. For the local topography of Boston and its suburbs this volume is, of course, invaluable, and the city has done well to rescue such interesting and precious memorials of its early state.

—The annual report of President Angell, of the University of Michigan, just published, gives an encouraging account of the advanced studies now carried on at that institution. He reports that the average age of undergraduates at the end of their second year is something over twenty-one years, and that on account of this maturity the Faculty have deemed it safe and wise to leave to them an almost unlimited freedom in the choice of their studies. The experiment is regarded as successful. With few exceptions, studies are carried on "with a definite and high purpose, and with an earnest spirit." The Faculty has found that "what is known in Germany as the 'seminary' method of work is peculiarly adapted to secure the best results in advanced work in certain branches, as, for instance, history, political economy, finance, English literature, and some kinds of classical investigation." A plan has also been introduced by which a student who has creditably completed the first two years of his course may, at the beginning of the third year, be permitted to confine his attention for the remaining two years to three branches, one being taken as his major or principal subject, and two others as his minor or subsidiary subjects. The primary aim of this arrangement is to enable the most gifted students to concentrate their energies, and to advance as far as possible upon certain definite lines. The final examinations under it are conducted substantially as in Germany, each student being subjected by a committee of the Faculty to an oral examination from two to three hours in length. The public are invited to the reading of the theses and the examinations on them, but not to the oral examinations on the major and minor subjects. The President reports that the examinations were "rigorous and searching," and that, though some of the candidates for higher degrees failed on examination, seventeen candidates obtained the Master's degree. The number of applicants for advanced degrees nearly doubled during the past year, though the total attendance at the University in all its departments was a trifle less than in the year preceding.

—Accompanying the President's report is also the report of Professor Adams, the Dean of the School of Political Science. The grouping of studies offered by that school shows that there were given last year twelve courses in history, eight courses in the economic sciences, three courses in social, sanitary, and educational science, and six courses in constitutional, administrative, and international law. Of these courses of instruction the following were given in the year 1882-3 for the first time: the course in the history of American finance, the course on public scientific surveys, the course on the economic development of mineral resources, the course on the historical development of educational systems and methods, the course on the government of cities, the course on the history of modern diplomacy, and the course on the methods of local government in Europe and America. During the year a "Political Science Association" was formed, consisting of professors and students, with the design of drawing together into more intimate and sympathetic intercourse all the members of the school. At these meetings papers resulting from original research were read by the President of the Uni-

versity, and by several of the professors and students of the school. Reports were also given at each meeting of books on political science, either recently published or recently procured for the University Library. The appliances of the school have been very largely increased during the past year by the purchase of nearly 2,000 volumes of books, which are now shelved in the rooms set apart for the use of students of the school. These books, taken in connection with the Rau Library of 4,000 volumes and 6,000 pamphlets on political economy, finance, and administrative methods, besides the works in the general library, are believed to offer excellent opportunities for the most advanced work.

—A few weeks since we recorded the formation of the American Ornithologists' Union. We have now to chronicle the organization of another scientific association, the Society of Naturalists of the Eastern United States, which held its first general meeting at the Columbia School of Mines, in this city, on December 27-28. Both in its scope and in its membership this young society departs widely from the customs of such associations in this country, for in both regards it maintains a strictly professional character. Its membership already includes the large majority of naturalists by profession in the Middle and New England States, among them many of great distinction. The communications made at the meeting all dealt with practical questions, such as methods of work and of teaching, museum administration, and other topics concerning the ways and means of naturalists. The attendance at the meeting was very large, and the proceedings most strikingly illustrated the advantages of having so many scientists interested in a single department gathered together, for the debates were often keen and pointed. Papers were read by Professors Wilder, Gage, Cope, Niles, James Hall, Harrison Allen, Wadsworth, Hyatt, Rothrock, Bickmore, and by Drs. Minot, Dimmock, etc. Only those papers were admitted which enlarged our knowledge of the means and methods of work, thus completely separating this society from all others where results of original investigation may be presented. The Society hopes to direct its powerful influence to elevating the character of the appointments of instructors in natural science in colleges and elsewhere. The abuses which occur in these appointments are too open and notorious to require to be here pointed out. It is not uncommon for a post to be filled in accordance with mere local knowledge of possible candidates, or for a competent person to be discarded or excluded through theological prejudice. The Society will confer a vast benefit upon the community if, as is hoped, it can exercise an effectual interference in these matters, on the one hand by holding up for condemnation bad appointments, and on the other by establishing a careful system of bringing competent candidates into direct communication with the appointing authorities.

—A year whose death-list includes, like that of 1883, names as eminent in their respective ranks as Chambord, Gortchakoff, Karl Marx, Wagner, Turgeneff, Colenso, and Doré, must be allowed a certain distinction among those which have preceded it. Some curious associations are noticeable: not only Doré, but his friend and comrade in Spain, Baron Davillier, the art archaeologist and connoisseur; not only Clésinger, the sculptor, and son-in-law of George Sand, but Jules Sandeau, the novelist, and her lover; not only Ernst Dohm, the founder and editor of the *Kladderadatsch*, but Richard Doyle, the delightful caricaturist, and designer of the time-honored title-page of *Punch*. At the other ex-

treme from Marx was Schultze-Delitzsch, the apostle of industrial coöperation; and from Colenso, Louis Veuillot, the Ultramontane editor of the *Univers*. Abdel-Kader, who died more deaths by report in his latter years than he ever escaped on Algerian battle-fields, may serve as a sort of link between Louis Viardot, the historian of the Arabs and Moors in Spain, Edward FitzGerald, the lamented translator of Omer Khayyâm, and François Lenormant, the "all-round" Orientalist. The modern Greek statesman Coumoundouros, and Dindorf, the commentator and editor of the ancient Greek classical writers, left the stage together. So, likewise, Sir Edward Sabine, the veteran explorer of terrestrial magnetism, and Sir William Siemens, prematurely cut off in the midst of extraordinary electrical invention; so, again, John Payne Collier, the student of Shakspeare, Karl Witte, a far higher order of mind, the student of Dante, and C. B. Cayley, author of the best metrical English version of the 'Commedia'. John Richard Green is certainly the most serious loss that history has sustained during the year, but Laboulaye and Henri Martin have, for personal and political reasons, a surer hold on remembrance. Science misses the Belgian physicist, Plateau; J. B. Listing, who gave his name to the familiar "law" in optics; and, more than either, Hermann Müller, in the domain of botany. Add the well-nigh centenarian S. Nilsson, "the oldest naturalist in the world, as respects both age and priority of his writings." From the service of art have been taken that interesting and serious French painter, Ulysse Butin, and Geefs, the Belgian sculptor. The composer Flotow leaves a name, but hardly a vacancy. Henri Conscience and Mayne Reid are chief among the novelists who have passed away. The vast unfinished ballad collection of Svend Grundtvig marks Denmark's privation. Another memorable scholar was Franz Dietrich, profound in Semitic and Teutonic philology. Bescherelle, author of the well-known French dictionary, is also gone. Sir George Bowyer, jurist; William Chambers, the people's publisher; Francis Bedford, not the people's binder; and the Rev. Derwent Coleridge, the amiable and learned son of the great poet, should be added to the Englishmen already enumerated. General Chanzy is the principal soldier whose obituary was written in 1883.

—The civil war is vividly recalled by the principal group in our domestic losses—Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederacy; Jeremiah S. Black, Buchanan's Attorney-General; Montgomery Blair, Lincoln's Postmaster-General; Senator Lot M. Morrill, member of the Peace (that was no peace) Convention of 1861; Senator Timothy O. Howe, a delegate to the Philadelphia "Loyalists' Convention" of 1866; Gov. Marshall Jewell, Grant's Postmaster-General; Gustavus V. Fox, Lincoln's efficient Assistant-Secretary of the Navy; and the gallant Generals A. A. Humphreys and E. O. C. Ord. Conspicuous also is the little band of munificent givers that includes Peter Cooper, Nathaniel Thayer, and Wm. E. Dodge. Dr. John Le Conte, our first authority in entomology, and Prof. Stephen Alexander, the Princeton astronomer, are the chief scientists on the list. The sculptors Clark Mills and Martin Millmore have left numerous monuments behind them. An individual if not a great novelist, the Rev. W. M. Baker; a clever poetical translator, the Rev. Charles T. Brooks; the historian of the Revolution, George W. Greene; Judge George Sharswood, the legal commentator; and Charles C. Hazewell, a prolific writer for the press, and a contributor to the encyclopædias (for which his historical studies especially qualified him), are

the leading names in literature whose work is closed. No more distinguished clergyman than the unhappy Archbishop Purcell calls for mention. We have reserved to the last a personage doubtless most world-famous of all our American dead—General Tom Thumb.

—Notwithstanding the important part which the cities of Holland have taken in the development of commerce and navigation, no history of Dutch maritime law worthy of its subject had been written before the work of Dr. M. Th. Goudsmit was published: 'Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Zeerecht.' It will consist of two volumes, the first, which appeared a few months ago, containing the history of the sources of Dutch maritime law, while the second will contain the history of the different doctrines. It is to be regretted that the Dutch language is so little known, for, apart from the value which this book has for the legal profession by reason of its thorough researches among the sources which are common to all maritime law, it gives the general public a glimpse of a very interesting and very little known part of the history of civilization—*Culturgeschiede*, to use a German expression. We refer to that part of the book where the author discusses the various "Keuren" which were promulgated in the Dutch cities on the subject of maritime law from the abjuration of Philip II. to the end of the eighteenth century. These "Keuren" were regulations of commerce which issued from the "Schepenen" (i. e., the judges who had jurisdiction in admiralty matters), in cases as to which the customary law was silent, or which were fit subjects for police regulation. All the energy of the people was devoted to navigation and commerce, and it can readily be seen what interesting details of the social and political relations and of the every-day life of the Dutch people these "Keuren" reveal to us. They exhibit the jealous care with which the cities guarded against any encroachment on their municipal privileges by the central government in the struggle (in the regulation of insurance law) between practical good sense and old theological and moral scruples. But of no less interest, perhaps, for the student of men and manners are the paternal regulations to prevent sailors from getting drunk, or lawyers from interfering in any quarrel between the master and his crew. All these points, slight in themselves, but which give color and character to a treatise, are brought out in full relief by the admirable style of Dr. Goudsmit. The book, though entering into minute historical details, is eminently readable, and the full force of this compliment will be best understood by those who have tried wearily to plod through German books on similar topics.

—Although shorn of its honors as a product of the first printing press, the so-called Gutenberg print, whose title to that distinction we think has been sufficiently disproved (see *Nation* of Nov. 29, 1883), is still not devoid of bibliographical interest. Late investigation has disclosed the probability of its being the *editio princeps* of Sebastian Brand's 'Richterlicher Clagspiegel,' published for the first time under the last title in 1516 at Strasbourg. The descent of Brand's popular compendium of law (for such is the character of the work) has been traced by Panzer, in his 'Annalen' from an anonymously printed and published tract, apparently a later edition of our newly discovered print, and typographically like a treatise printed by Peter Berger at Augsburg in 1488 or 1489, entitled 'Spiegel der menschlichen Behaltens.' Panzer credited Brand with the authorship of the precursors of the 'Richterlicher Clagspiegel,' but a proper interpretation

of the passage in the title, reading "durch Doctorem Sebastianum Brand wider durchsichtigt und zum teyl gebessert," seems to show him only as the editor. Comparison of the Mentz (supposed Gutenberg) issue with the Augsburg publication shows the latter to be a word-for-word reproduction of the former, and the general coincidence in subject-matter with the 'Richterlicher Clagspiegel' indicates their common origin. The *Neuer Anzeiger*, still fondly imagining a Gutenberg incunabulum, cites the issuing of this popular law treatise as a further proof of Gutenberg's aim to disseminate useful knowledge, manifested already in the printing of the Bible to promote spiritual knowledge, in the 'Catholicon' for the presentation of scientific matter, and, finally, in the work under consideration to popularize legal information.

—Of books about books there is no end, seemingly, and especially in France, where the worship of paper and ink has been carried to the utmost excess. Among them a little book by M. Jules Richard, 'L'Art de former une Bibliothèque' (Paris: Rouveyre & Blond; New York: J. W. Bouton) deserves mention. It is a sort of supplement or corollary of M. Rouveyre's treatise on the 'Connaissances nécessaires à un Bibliophile,' which it matches in size and in typographic beauty. The paper is not too white, the margins are broad, and if the press-work had but been a little more careful, the book would be perfect. M. Richard's advice is meant not for those learned in books and full in pocket, but for the more modest beginner, who has a taste for reading and a liking for the prettinesses of printing, binding, and illustration. He warns the beginner against undue enthusiasm, and against the exorbitant prices asked for the original editions of second-rate authors. The great authors justify a long price and will probably hold their own always, but the second rate owe their fancy prices only to freaks of the hour: Rotif de la Bretonne, for example, went up like a rocket and is beginning to come down like a stick; but the original editions of Molière's single plays have steadily risen in value until a full set is now worth about six thousand dollars (against which we may set the four or five thousand asked now for the first four folios of Shakespeare). M. Richard notes that the Sand Musset quarrel called forth seven books, 'Lui et Elle,' 'Elle et Lui,' 'Lui,' 'Eux et Elles,' etc., of which three are so rare that the collection was marked a hundred francs in a catalogue of 1876. He pays special attention to illustrated books; and here let us say in passing that in France nowadays an illustrated book is primarily a book adorned with etchings, just as in the United States it is a book adorned with woodcuts. There are a few fine French books illustrated by woodcuts as there are a few fine American books illustrated by etchings, but the French superiority in etching is as marked as the American superiority in woodcutting. The English superiority, so far as it exists, is in the fine color-printing we see in Mr. Caldecott's and Miss Greenaway's delightful books. M. Richard dwells on the need of a catalogue for even the smallest collection of books. He advises a card catalogue, but heretically suggests the separation of the author and subject alphabets.

LORD LYTON'S LIFE.

The Life, Letters, and Literary Remains of Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton. By his son. With portraits and illustrations. Vol. I. (containing Vols. I. and II. of the English Edition). New York: Harper & Brothers.

THE instalment of Lord Lytton's life now before

the public only brings his career down to 1829, when he was but twenty-six years of age. At that age, however, he had made his name as a man of letters—was known, in fact, all over the world as a poet and novelist. 'Pelham' had established his reputation on a secure basis, and he had also commenced a political career in Parliament. The picture of his early life, sketched by himself and completed by his son, does little to alter materially the impression made on the public mind by him while alive, as a man of extraordinary fertility, resource, and brilliancy of mind. That he had a great literary or moral message to deliver appears to have been one of his cherished illusions, and a tendency to illusion was one of his marked characteristics. Both he and his son have a good deal to say about the moral purpose of such books as 'Falkland' and 'Paul Clifford.' The first, as we understand it, was to portray the disastrous consequences of illicit passion; the second, to utter a protest against the bloody penal code of the day. But, unfortunately, even in such cases, the purpose of the author does not seem to have been understood. Curiously enough, he appears at one time to have thought of himself as heading a reaction against the "saturnine" school brought in by Byron—the school of morbid melancholy, self-accused of unnamable crime. We say curiously, for he himself fell heir to a good deal of Byronism—to its melancholy, to its sensitiveness, its magniloquence, its pride, and he was hailed in France as a great literary man on the strength of a resemblance which was, perhaps, more striking when perceived through the medium of a translation into a language that easily lends itself to magniloquence than in English. But, looking back at the long array of books of all sorts that he produced, it is hard to detect in any of them the touch of original genius that marks the work of some of his contemporaries with whom he inevitably must be compared.

He began his career at a period when it was in fashion to be "misunderstood," and it would appear, from his own and his son's account, that he was thoroughly misunderstood to an extraordinary degree. Not only many of his critics and most of his readers misunderstood him, but in private life he was wholly misunderstood by his mother and by his wife. In connection with this fact, we may refer the reader to the Lady Caroline Lamb episode. She, being herself a thoroughgoing *femme incomprise*, brought a promising flirtation with the young author to an untimely end. His account of her relations with him throws out into bold relief the more ridiculous features of the society in which he was brought up, and makes us wonder how in such an atmosphere any manly or healthy feeling could flourish. It was a society in which the sentiment and fancy were cultivated to the point at which it became continually impossible to tell whether what you felt was a simple emotion, or the result of a strong imaginative perception of what the emotion appropriate to the situation would, to the eye of Romance, probably be.

A great part of the present volume is taken up with an account of the estrangement and subsequent partial reconciliation between Bulwer and his mother, and the circumstances of his married life which led later on to the fatal trouble between himself and his wife. For his biographer the task of going over this ground is certainly an unenviable one, and if he accomplishes it without provoking replies and recriminations from the custodians of other literary remains, his book will be more successful than such publications are apt to be. The

sum and substance of his story is this: Bulwer's mother (between whom and his father there had also been a separation) had, before his marriage to the beautiful Miss Wheeler, supported him. To this marriage she was bitterly opposed, and her son promised not to marry without her consent. Before long, however, he began, as might have been expected, to feel that his honor was involved by his relations with Miss Wheeler, and that therefore the promise ought not to be considered binding. His mother regarded it as sacred, and on his marriage stopped his allowance, as she had threatened to do, and absolutely dropped him. Then followed a series of letters from Bulwer to her, which give us an important clue to his character. Their writer was certainly in a very cruel position. Himself accustomed to an easy life, on a liberal allowance furnished by his mother, he had now married a woman unaccustomed to privation or care, and, by her own naïf admission, unqualified for the common routine of household duty. Income he practically had none, and he had nothing to look forward to but literary drudgery as a means of livelihood. Yet in all his letters to his mother, pleading earnestly for a reconciliation, on every ground that occurred to his heart or mind, there is not a suggestion of any pecuniary claim upon her. He appealed to her to be reconciled to his wife as a matter of justice, and his appeals proved too eloquent to be resisted; but the letters are those of a man too proud to admit that a question of money should affect such a matter—though he must have been sadly in need of it at the time. Finally the reconciliation was effected, and his mother called upon his wife and restored his allowance. She was, however, not satisfied with her reception, and in consequence used some expression about her "maintaining" her daughter-in-law. Bulwer at once declined to receive the allowance, and wrote his mother a letter beginning as follows:

"HATFIELD: Thursday.

"When, some time ago, you informed me of your intention to allow me so large an income, I was perfectly aware of the great generosity of the offer. Nothing could have induced me to agree to your making so considerable a sacrifice but the conviction that, as the proposal could only arise from affection, so I could not more wound that affection than by refusing it. I felt, too, that my health was weak and reduced; that it had been greatly overstrained, that it required a long and considerable relaxation from mental harassment for its recovery; that, without your proposal, I should not be justified in giving myself such relaxation; and that, as you were so sensible of this that your offer seemed, in great measure, to spring from the knowledge of it, so it would give you, I thought, a far greater pleasure to relieve me from the necessity of exertions which had become injurious, than to be withheld by me from a sacrifice for which nothing could repay you but my sense of its exceeding generosity and kindness. To have refused it at that moment would have been false pride. I accepted it with the warmest gratitude, and it was a pleasure to me to think I owed you so much."

But, he adds, he did not consider this, nor did he suppose that his mother considered it, "maintenance." For three years already he had been maintaining himself. The effect of the allowance (£1,000) would be merely to enable him to work less hard and spare his health, on which his constant labor was beginning to tell. He says that he is "not above an obligation," but insists very justly that in such an obligation, the moment the kindness and generosity of the benefactor are subordinated to the sense of pecuniary burden, the latter becomes intolerable. He continues:

"What remains to me to do is obvious. I feel still persuaded that, at the time you made to me so generous a proposal, you did not see the offer as, according to your words, you now

see it; and I shall always remember the affection which then dictated it with a gratitude much warmer, I fear, than I should have felt for it had you said those words some years hence, after I had incurred the unconscious meanness of contracting a debt I had not the ability to pay."

Firmly, then, and respectfully, I now return to my own resources and my own exertions. The sum you were so kind as to transfer to my account will have been paid back to yours before you receive this letter. The feelings that occasion this decision do not lessen my affection. They only render me, I hope, more worthy of yours. *Maintenance* is a word confined solely to *Charity*; and no person who retains the use of his limbs and brains deserves esteem if he stoops to receive charity for himself. Still less does he deserve it if he suffers his wife or children to be dependent on the charity of others."

This is certainly the letter of a morbidly proud young man, but there is in it a tone of lofty superiority to what may be called the modern business view of family relations which is characteristic of Bulwer. We may call it absurdly romantic, but Bulwer was brought up under the influence of the idea that romance was the great reality of life, and for his over-sensitive mind romance proved to be too strong meat. But if any one who recollects the effect upon himself when young of Bulwer's novels—and it is chiefly upon the young that such books are likely to have a strong moral effect—will candidly recall the impression they made, he will certainly admit that magniloquent or affected though they may have been, they never taught him to take a sordid view of life. It was left for a later generation of novelists to depict life and fate as hinging on pounds, shillings, and pence.

Bulwer's autobiography is a fantastic sketch of a high-strung, enthusiastic, romantic boy, brought up among books, and aristocratic traditions and prejudices, and belonging to the old pre-democratic world, when it was the fashion for gentlemen to profess radical ideas, the ultimate consequences of which they little perceived. In 'Felham,' in 'Kenelm Chillingly,' in 'Ernest Maltravers,' we catch glimpses of him, but in reading his reminiscences, we feel ourselves in an atmosphere as far removed from that of ordinary biography as was the ether breathed by those heroes. Whatever we may think of his poetry, there is no denying that he had the poetical temperament, and saw events and persons in a light which never was on sea or land, and which he seemed to have the power of turning on at will; for when not giving himself up to flights of fancy, his observation of the actual facts of life, and his judgment of the motives which govern men in their intercourse with each other, were shrewd and just.

Thackeray, who later in life apologized with becoming contrition for the fun he had made of him, wrote a parody which perhaps constitutes the best extant criticism of Bulwer's literary faults, and of the curious vein of absurdity that makes his efforts at romance so frequently end in a fiasco. He never understood (for he had none of that rare humor which enables a man to enjoy a joke at his own expense, and indeed very little humor of any kind) what people found to amuse them in the lampoons upon him with which the press soon began to abound; and when we remember the grossly personal character of much of the literary criticism of the day, we can hardly wonder at his assumed indifference to the "ribald" attacks of his enemies. His son gives a specimen of these from *Frazer's* of December, 1831, and it is certainly of a kind to make us stare.

"Do not be seduced," the writer says, "into the belief that, because a man in your employer's back shop can manufacture a novel on the shortest notice, and at the lowest price, therefore all other species of literary labor may be similarly performed. Nobody knows better

than yourself that to make a fashionable novel all that is required is a tolerable acquaintance with footmen and butlers. This will supply the high life. The meanness of the characters introduced you may draw from yourself."

Wishing to put a young man in your position in the right path, I have cast a hasty glance over the first magazine on which you have tried your hand, and am sorry to say it is truly beastly, and abominably stupid. . . . My dear Bulwer, this writing of yours is bitter bad, it is jejune base twaddle, twaddle, I say, Bulwer, twaddle."

This was pretty wide of the mark; but Thackeray's satire was a nearly mortal stab. To Thackeray Bulwer was simply keeping up a sham romance in literature; his flights of fancy were affected and fantastic, his sentiment unnatural. And so they often were. Thackeray was right: 'George de Barnwell' is a wonderful parody. But this was not all. The strangest part of Bulwer's life is that the true is mixed with the false so that they are inseparable; for his overheated imagination often did not permit him to know which was which. He was no conscious literary impostor, as Disraeli must have been, but a man who was fond of looking at the world in the light of sentiments and ideas which had little or no relation to experience, while his life of constant literary drudgery was making him one of the most expert, shrewd, and practical men of letters of his day. The construction of his novels alone—the sustained interest in the plot, the witty observation of men and manners, and the extraordinary range of reflection and study shown in them—would make his career remarkable. As a dramatist, he has accomplished the feat of producing plays which have held the stage for a generation—a performance in itself enough to make his literary career remarkable. His many good and strong qualities—his industry, his research, his insight into motives—triumphed in the end over the influence of the artificial social and literary atmosphere in which he was brought up, and leave his name still famous in the long list of great authors our age has produced. No one can read the record of his steady, unremitting, and painful toil, to which he devoted his early and best years, without feeling that all he won he honestly earned.

WALLACE'S EGYPT.

Egypt and the Egyptian Question. By D. Mackenzie Wallace. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE *muzik*, or little man, is the most prominent subject in Wallace's 'Russia'; the *fellah*, or peasant, is the almost exclusive subject of his 'Egypt.' Neither book is a work of travel, or of geographical interest; the former is an ethnographical study in a very broad sense, the latter an economic-political study of very limited scope. 'Russia,' being the result of a young man's observations, for several years during a peaceful period, on a nation awakening to self-consciousness in apparently youthful vigor, is no less pleasantly readable than it is instructive; 'Egypt,' the product of a much-disillusioned observer, bent on examining inveterate national ailments, wounds inflicted by recent governmental quackery and sudden convulsions, and general conditions of decrepitude, is naturally very painful reading. In spite of the author's easy and lucid way of narrating experiences personally made or gathered from witnesses, of his good-natured humor and perhaps too constant facetiousness, of his invariably pleasing style and rich stock of comparisons and illustrations—whence also no little diffuseness and repetition—this volume reads like a martyrology which inspires pity totally unmixed with admiration. Heartless tyranny on

oneside, and stupidity and cowardice on the other—such is all the picture of woe exhibited before us. Not a ray of Pharaonic, Ptolemaic, or Saracenic glory is reflected upon it. The author discards all the allurements so easily borrowed from Egyptian lore and history, ignoring alike Amen-Ra and Thebes, obelisks and hieroglyphs, Hyksos and exodus, Cleopatra and Cæsar, Amru and Saladin. He treats Egypt and the Egyptian question as topics of political pathology, interesting to statesmen, and now, exceptionally, also to the whole British nation. Aiming at being seriously exhaustive and at making his problem popularly intelligible, he has succeeded in both—though not without exposing himself, as he is well aware, to the reproach of analytical tediousness on one side, and of levity of diction on the other.

His story and view of the situation may be epitomized as follows: Mehemet Ali, in the beginning of this century, replaced the chronic disorder which prevailed under the divided and petty tyranny of the Mamelukes by a strong and enlightened personal despotism. Having crushed the Mameluke beys, he did all in his power to develop the resources of the country and introduce European improvements. His great economical work was the systematic canalization of the delta. This required an enormous amount of forced labor, which was pitilessly extorted from the fellahs. It wonderfully increased the productivity of Egypt, but the despot, whose aim was not the welfare of the people, but the accumulation of means for one day coping with the Sultan, took good care that the increase in the national revenue should mainly flow into the Viceregal treasury. This he effected by rigid Government monopolies. He guarded for himself the exclusive right of buying agricultural products for exportation, and his Government fixed the prices. When forced by the Sultan to submit to the general treaties of the Empire, which allowed foreigners to trade freely with the natives, he made this right nugatory by extorting heavy taxes in kind, and leaving but a scanty surplus to the producers. A still more galling burden was his military conscription. After the extermination of the Mamelukes he resolved on getting rid of his Albanian soldiery through the formation of a native army, and it was composed mainly of fellahs violently torn from their homes. The peasantry had gained some security and a greater fixity of land tenure under the intelligent sway of Mehemet Ali, but they felt the weight of his imposts, forced labor, and conscription to be as grievous as the fitful rapacity of the Circassian robbers whom he had annihilated. The short reign, in 1848, of his son (or adopted son) Ibrahim Pasha, who had commanded his armies in Arabia, in the Morea, and in his wars with the Sultan, was but a continuation of the same régime.

Under Ibrahim's nephew and successor, Abbas, the fellahs breathed more freely. Abbas was addicted to private vices, and was haughty in his demeanor, gloomy and fierce; but he was free from Mehemet Ali's towering ambition, designs of conquest, and love of military display. His fiscal rapacity was therefore more moderate, and the burden of his conscription light. He abolished what remained of the Government monopolies, and diminished the *corvée* duties; for the ordinary resources of the country more than sufficed for the wants of his peaceful administration and the satisfaction of his luxurious tastes, while the continuation on a grand scale of Mehemet Ali's canalization schemes was deemed unnecessary. The kurbash was sparingly used in the collection of taxes, and yet the Viceregal treasury was full. The habitual victims of Abbas's tyranny were persons far

above the state of the fellah, and by such he was, in 1854, strangled in the recesses of his harem.

Said Pasha, Mehemet Ali's son, who succeeded Abbas, was entirely different in character. Kind-hearted, light-headed, amiable, he had more of the witty Frenchman than of the grave Oriental. But he had weaknesses which became sources of oppression. He had a love of soldiering, used the army as a plaything, and consequently extended the conscription. He was unable to resist the suggestions and requests of unscrupulous European adventurers—"that swarm of *chevaliers d'industrie* and shady financiers who were soon to help on the Viceregal Government in its downward course through pressing financial embarrassments to national bankruptcy." Said was also unable to resist the loftier suggestions of a man of different stamp—Ferdinand de Lesseps—and, after much vacillation, he signed the concession for the construction of the Suez Canal. This signature was of vital importance to the commerce of the world—and also to the fellahs. M. de Lesseps "no doubt really intended, as he said, to teach—not by precept but by example—the native Egyptian engineers how to dig and clean canals by machinery, without the use of forced labor; but somehow, when the work began, . . . he thought it better to teach his French engineers—not by precept but by example—how to dig and clean canals by forced labor, without machinery." The consequence of this change of method for the Egyptian peasants was that there were always about "20,000 of them at work, 10,000 in the course of being transported to the scene of operations, and 10,000—or as many of these as had survived the labor and privations—being transported back to their homes." Apart from the vastness of the scheme, the "ruthless sacrifice of human life . . . entitles the canal to rank with some of the great works of the Pharaohs." Fortunately, Lord Palmerston—not from purely humanitarian motives—obtained the annulment of the forced-labor clause; and Said's increased taxes, too, were not unbearable, owing to the rise in the price of grain caused by the Crimean war, to the greater facilities of exportation created by the completion of the railway from Alexandria to Cairo, and ultimately to the unprecedented demand for cotton produced by the American civil war.

Ismail Pasha, Ibrahim's son, who succeeded Said in 1863, "combined in his portly person the qualities of a vigorous Oriental despot with those of a daring Occidental stock broker," and his schemes for developing the immense resources of Egypt were on a grand scale. Fortune favored his ambition. The American war at its height, the clamors for cotton of the spinners of Lancashire, and the hoarded wealth of Western Europe anxiously seeking new fields for investment—these were admirable circumstances for a financier enthroned in Egypt. Ismail threw the flood-gates wide open to European capital, and its effects were magical. Railways, canals, and harbors were created, extended, or improved. The cotton production was wonderfully stimulated and increased; spinning factories were established. The pashas and large land-owners imitated the work of their ruler in his boundless estates, and the peasants themselves eagerly took to the new species of cultivation. A most extraordinary prosperity rewarded the new enterprises: gold flowed into hovels. But the fellah's Golden Age did not last long: when the American war was over, the bubble of inflated production burst. Egyptian cotton was "played out." The soil showed signs of exhaustion. But the increased taxes remained. The Khedive needed money,

and the bastinado had to squeeze it out of his impoverished subjects. Worse than that—sugar production was now to be a substitute for cotton in gorging his treasury. Upper Egypt was to produce it, and had to be canalized for the purpose. And so the Ibrahimieh Canal, from Bihé to Assiut, was dug by forced labor. And, to complete the improvement, the Upper Egypt Railway was built alongside the canal and brought down to Cairo—also by forced labor. The poorer peasants were besides in debt for loans contracted for land improvement; they borrowed from Greek usurers to pay arrears of taxes; unable to pay, they sold their land, or the Government confiscated it—that is to say, Ismail did; and he thus ultimately became the owner of about one-fifth of all the arable soil of the country. All the enormous machinery of the Government, from the Minister of State down to the lowest village sheikh, was constantly active in this great work of oppression and extortion; and each worker had his special compensation, wrung from the fellah.

But a day of reckoning is inevitable. "The Egyptian Viceregal magician has made a solemn contract, and has often renewed it, with the demon of European finance, and the financial Me-phistopheles has served him faithfully according to the terms agreed upon. He has created for him railways and canals, opera-houses and ballet-girls, cotton plantations and sugar factories, palaces and public gardens, harbors and iron-clads—in a word, everything that a fertile Oriental imagination could devise—and now, . . . the *mauvais quart d'heure* approaches, when the last clause of the contract has to be executed." The magnificence displayed at the opening of the Suez Canal has not restored his tottering credit. In his distress he applies to the European Powers for controlling financiers, and receives successively Mr. Cave, Signor Scialoja, Goschen, and Joubert. They are no magicians. His fertile brain looks for a more potent spell to conjure the approaching doom: he invents a sham parliamentary government, and telegraphs to Paris for Nubar Pasha to form a responsible cabinet. Nubar arrives, but, instead of aiding in a work of jugglery intended to remove the fiscal responsibility of the Khedive, he is fully in earnest about the reforms, and frightens his master with the spectre of deposition into giving up to the state his and his children's private estates, and accepting the financial management of Mr. Rivers Wilson and M. de Bignonères. Ismail cannot brook it long. He rids himself of the incubus through a military demonstration, and announces a new scheme of financial settlement, with a great display of patriotic readiness on the part of his family to sacrifice wealth to the honor of the state. It is too late. A grudge of Germany, the old jealousy of the Sultan, and the anger of France and England at the dismissal of Wilson and Bignonères result, in 1879, in the launching in Stambul of the imperial decree of deposition, and there is no means of resisting it. "Exit Ismail with an air of injured innocence, and with a carpet-bag containing valuable family jewels. . . . Enter Tewfik, accompanied by Riaz and the Anglo-French control"; and with the latter come an overhauling of the finances, economy, a better distribution of taxes, and an improved method of collection. The rise and agitation of the National Party, Arabi's insurrection and dictatorship, the massacres of Alexandria and its bombardment, and Tell el-Kebir, caused new confusion, and entailed new losses and sufferings upon the fellahs who were beguiled or driven into the patriotic movement.

Of the men who under Ismail and his son, Tewfik, acted an important part in politics, Nubar, Riaz, and Arabi are the most conspic-

uous. Nubar, an Armenian by descent, combines with the knowledge and enlightenment of first-rate European statesmen the suppleness and subtlety, the rapidity of conception and fertility of resource, of the genuine Oriental, and "a charm of manner, an artistic power of lucid explanation and graphic description peculiarly his own." A sincere friend of legality, it was he who, though averse to the political domination of the foreigners, introduced the International Law Courts, and, systematically undermining the arbitrary power of Ismail, greatly contributed to his fall. Riaz, the son of a Jewish renegade, or himself a renegade, is a small, thin man, of anything but prepossessing appearance, and endowed neither with the Oriental's dignity of manner nor with a natural fluency of speech. But he is possessed of a strong will and great tenacity of purpose, and, what is much rarer in the atmosphere in which he acts, of integrity in pecuniary matters. As an administrator he has great natural aptitude, ample experience, and energy; but, his ways being those of the Oriental rather than the European dignitary, he has always evinced more faith in discipline than in justice, and greater anxiety to uphold the authority of the guardians of order and collectors of taxes than to redress grievances. He is patriotically jealous of foreign influence, and convinced that Occidental institutions in Oriental lands can result only in confusion and anarchy; but he honestly assisted the English and French financiers, as such, during the time of the dual control. Arabi is a big, broad-shouldered fellah, with a massive forehead, soft eyes, "an indefinable something which impresses favorably all who come in contact with him," and wonderful eloquence in the language of the Koran. Of his movement, and the view taken of it in England, Mr. Wallace says:

"Again and again our responsible statesmen expressly declared, or tacitly assumed, that Arabi was simply a military adventurer and nothing more; that the military leaders represented no one but themselves, and produced a mere phantom of popular support by terrorizing the population; that the real National Party, in so far as anything of the sort existed, were represented by the virtuous Sherif, and had no manner of sympathy with Arabi and his wicked accomplices; that all sections of the population were animated with loyalty and affection for the amiable young prince who was their legal ruler.

"Now, I do not wish to inquire who are responsible for this absurd caricature of the revolutionary movement. . . . But in the name of common honesty and common sense, let us frankly abjure our errors, let us refrain from increasing our difficulties by adopting the silly device of timid, stupid ostriches, and let us look the facts bravely in the face, however ugly or unpleasant they may be. Arabi did not acquire and preserve his influence by terrorism, for at the commencement he had no power to injure any one, and during the whole time of his power he never caused a single individual to be beheaded, hanged, or shot. If he had gone to the poll with Tewfik, and all corrupt practices had been excluded, he would have obtained the votes of an overwhelming majority of the free and independent electors. The amiable young prince never possessed the faculty of inspiring his subjects with affection or enthusiasm, and he became decidedly unpopular when he sided with the foreigner against Arabi. The virtuous Sherif represented merely his own views, and those of a few respectable moderate men, who might be counted perhaps on the fingers of one hand. Nearly everybody in Egypt, intelligent and educated enough to understand what the question at issue was, wished to be freed, not from the tyranny of military despots, but from the wholesome checks created by the Anglo-French control, while the great mass of the ignorant peasantry wished to be liberated from the yoke of the usurers, which was the only kind of foreign influence with which they were personally acquainted. . . ."

Those who remained really loyal to Tewfik favored a strong government through a trust-

worthy army of foreign mercenaries, but very few were ready to help in carrying out the English reform scheme; and to suppose that these few can realize that scheme by their own strength and without extraneous assistance is as absurd, Mr. Wallace thinks, "as it would be to suppose that two men and a boy in a little dinghy could tow the *Great Eastern* out to sea." English coöperation in the work of reorganizing Egypt must, therefore, not be confined to merely removing obstacles: England must have the direction of the work. She must prevent dangerous political agitations by removing, as far as possible, legitimate grounds of complaint. But the political institutions to which her influence may give rise must be created for advice and guidance rather than for a direct exercise of power. The Khedive and his ministers must be endowed with sufficient power, and induced by the necessary amount of pressure, to carry through the needed reforms. The action must virtually be England's. The great majority of the native officials have no wish for reforms tending to diminish their illicit gains or curb their despotic sway. The few who have a purer character and higher aims are incompetent from lack of knowledge, faith, or energy. The great mass of the people are ignorant, apathetic, and helpless. Improvements in the Egyptian administration must be of the Indian type. "They must be imported, and for some time carefully tended. When they have once struck deep root, they may, perhaps, be left to take care of themselves." The improvements are not to be merely political; economical ones are more urgently needed. For Egypt is threatened with a terrible economic crisis, the rural population being impoverished and sinking deeper and deeper into debt and arrears of taxes, while the soil is losing its fertility. And England has no right to shrink from the difficulties of the task, enormous though they be. She may have had no right to go to Egypt, but she has now the duty to stay there until she performs what she undertook to do. On this point, which is, in fact, the main practical point of the book, Mr. Wallace expatiates most emphatically; but we have room left for only a few of his remarks:

"If we were not resolved to create something like permanent order in Egypt, why did we go to Egypt at all? If we did not mean to create really good government, why did we destroy the National Party, which had a far better chance of preserving order of some kind than the Khedive whom we reinstated? If we intended to let the Egyptians stew in their own juice, why did we wantonly interfere in the operation and send the fat into the fire? If we did not mean to do something serious in Egypt, why did we heedlessly and needlessly offend France by abolishing the Dual Control? The time for considering the question as to whether we should undertake the work of Egyptian reorganization was in the early part of last year, before we overthrew the Arabi dictatorship, and before the destruction of Alexandria. It is rather late in the day now to have conscientious scruples, and very foolish to imagine that by shirking our duties and responsibilities we can make for ourselves a reputation of disinterestedness and generosity. The man who begins to have conscientious scruples after having accomplished the destructive part of a great work, and who timidly shrinks from the unquestionable difficulties and possible dangers in the constructive part, does not gain a high moral reputation, but gains, and gains justly, the reputation of a miserable, cowering coward. We have done the work of destruction in Egypt very thoroughly. I do not speak merely of the blackened ruins of Alexandria. . . . We have thoroughly destroyed the old despotic system of ruling the country, and have thoroughly dislocated the whole system of government. . . . We prevented the Khedive from getting rid of Arabi at the commencement. Next, when the National Party were victorious, we prevented Arabi from getting rid of the Khedive; and, lastly, when the Khedive was reestablished, we prevented him . . . from recovering his moral authority and prestige by the exercise of

what he, and all impartial Egyptians, regarded as an act of necessary severity. . . ."

Historical Handbook of Italian Sculpture.

By Charles C. Perkins, Corresponding Member of the French Institute, Author of 'Tuscan Sculptors,' etc. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE position of Mr. Perkins as a recognized authority on Italian art is such as to render superfluous any elaborate notice of a work which in part retraces the ground travelled over in former works. At the same time, the classical importance, and the unquestionable high value of what he has to say on Italian art, leave the publishers no excuse for the poor and cheap manner in which the book is brought out. The illustrations are not over-copious (though excellent in their way) for a work of its kind, but they lose much by the quality of the paper and press-work. The brief preface contains more matter than one usually finds in such documents nowadays, when authors apparently regard them as mere formalities—rudimentary indications of functions now foregone. The curious fact of the gradual decline of art under the influence of a religion which has received the credit of being its foster mother, is interestingly shown. The conclusion is not new, but Mr. Perkins states it more logically than we have seen it elsewhere:

"Varying between Byzantinism, which regulated all forms of art by strictly conventional rules, and Mediaevalism, which regarded them solely as a means of conveying doctrinal instruction through symbolic or direct representation, sculpture in Italy had dragged out a feeble existence for many centuries before the year 1000 (when the end of the world was confidently expected), and had then almost ceased to be. As the dreaded moment approached, men only thought of how they could save their souls or drown their anxieties, and not until it had passed did they breathe freely enough to occupy themselves with life and its activities."

But when, following this lead, the author says that "among these, art at once claimed their attention, as gratitude for deliverance found natural expression in the building of new churches, etc.," we should be inclined to question his theory of cause and effect. That the failure of fulfilment of the churchmen's prophecy to a certain extent weakened their influence, and threw men back on the material life, and so emancipated them from the influence of the terrors which the Church held over mankind as the inducements to an ascetic life, is more probable than that any sense of gratitude for having escaped the menace which was a part of the religious discipline, should have made them more religious. It is hardly likely that they should overflow with thanksgiving for heaven's not having visited them with a doom which they were accustomed to regard as a part of the divine plan, and whose failure emptied the thunders of the Church. Men inclined to art because they felt freer and happier with regard to the material existence; but as in their condition of social organization the Church still held a powerful influence over their mental tendencies, they expressed their artistic aspirations in the way which sympathized most with the dominant mood of society.

The distinction the author makes in his account of sculpture as to its character is good; "we use the word *sculpture*, which implies technical and æsthetic training, instead of *stone carving*, which more properly expresses the nature of much of the work which we are to consider, simply because it is a more convenient form of speech, and not as implying artistic excellence in Italian works of the eleventh and twelfth centuries"; and this might be applied, *mutatis mutandis*, to painting as well. A well-digested introduc-

tion treats of the condition of sculpture prior to the epoch of Niccolò Pisano, whom the author rightly regards as the head of the movement of renaissance of sculpture, and with whom the history proper begins. Says Mr. Perkins: "For our own part we have no hesitation in leaving this long-accredited honor (that of giving birth to this revival) to Tuscany, for only there are to be found those works of the twelfth century which announce its approach, together with those of the thirteenth in which it reveals itself"; and here we can but agree with him entirely, the more as at no time has the southern portion of Italy, including Rome, shown originality or priority in artistic development. Nor is it possible that any such revival should take place where a general artistic tendency did not exist in the people, any more than that one man even like Niccolò should, without a preparation such as existed only in Tuscany, where it was probably the inheritance of the old Etruscan blood, evolve by his personal influence a reformation or revival of art.

In reference to Niccolò, Mr. Perkins makes one remark to which we should except as a matter of general philosophy of art:

"It seems at first sight strange that an artist of such extraordinary genius as Niccolò Pisano should not have formed scholars content to repeat his types and work in his spirit; but we understand the reason when we look at the eclectic character of his work, and consider the unsettled state of men's minds about art at this time. To shape others, a man must himself have definite ideas, and these Niccolò had not."

Unless definite ideas mean limited ideas, we should be inclined to maintain that Niccolò had all the definiteness which we can expect of a man who absorbs and remodels the ideas of all around and before him, and that his eclecticism was that of which we have such a near and remarkable example in Turner, who worked in the vein of many artists whom he appreciated, and at one time was eclectic and then intensely individual, without ever losing what he had absorbed. That an artist should make imitators, it is necessary not only that he should be strong and definite, but that he should be limited; a man of large and catholic genius will form pupils without moulding them to any narrow resemblance to himself. They may not "be content to repeat his types," simply because his types are not final, but be willing to follow his spirit and show in their works his influence, and thereby, in their development, the wider nature of their master, working in a liberty which he taught them.

The book closes with the year 1600, when in truth Italian sculpture may be said to have reverted to "stone carving." A useful appendix is the index to towns containing the works of the various masters, in which some changes are already to be made, as works formerly in positions more or less exposed are being transferred to the museums. The renaissance of sculpture in Italy is every day more clearly seen to be the school of our modern sculpture, if we are to have any, and the works which treat of it in its various relations are becoming a very important element in our art literature. In its province, we know nothing which so well fills its niche as this work.

A Roundabout Journey. By Charles Dudley Warner. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

MR. WARNER is one of the pleasantest of companions in those travels that are made by one's fireside. The ordinary inconveniences of rapid transit through semi-civilized lands, or through those half-barbarized by tourists and their tormentors, seem to disappear from his path; the

sun always shines, the world wears a leisurely look, and only so much of the inevitable occurs as may be easily accepted as food for humor. In this volume, which relates the adventures and describes the varying landscape to be met with in a journey round the western coast of the Mediterranean, there is the vividness, the picturesqueness, and the impression of a pervading indolence, familiar to us in the earlier books of Oriental travels from the same pen; and there is that light cheerfulness and tolerance which give the most agreeable *politesse* to a traveller, at least up to that evil hour when he entered Spain.

The ground gone over is the south coast of France, Sicily, Malta, some few miles of the Morocco shore near Tangier, and Spain. Roses bloomed from the start, and here and there some fine old legend of the romantic mediæval Mediterranean, the sea of the Norman, the Saracen, and the Crusader, gave itself to the traveller's hand. At Palermo he visited that curious cemetery that looks like an emigrant's baggage room, where 8,000 of the wealthy are exposed in death, their dried and weakened corpses, decked with crowns and lilies, kid gloves, fine shoes, and the like, being piled up in boxes with glass doors, or hung by the neck from the ceiling in all the ghastly grimace and what Mr. Warner calls the "limpness of irresponsibility for appearance which characterizes the dead." There probably is not on earth another so grotesque sight on the grand scale. It makes one think of the Sicilian vespers, the Pompeian museums—what not of the fierce extremes of a southern nature! But for the most part only delightful scenes rose along the way; the most charming of which seem to have been Taormina and Tangier, whence an idle man need never wish to stray; or such localities as were most colored by the neighborhood of the Orient. For anything Oriental, whether in costume or manner or habits of life, Mr. Warner has a soft spot in his heart. Though he may not approve, he is plainly attracted, and he turns away from the calm, the passion, the broad glowing colors of the scene even, with the air of one who likes the lotus, but has a practical fear that it will disagree with him.

The proverbial end to all good things came when Mr. Warner took the discomfiting steamer for Spain. From the hour he entered and had difficulty in retaining a single hairbrush from his baggage for the necessities of his morning toilet, he was badgered with incivility and harassed by a growing dislike for Spanish food, particularly beans. He holds the cuisine of the country in disdain; and his humor, whenever he mentions it, would be pathetic were it not a trifle acrid. Listen to this:

"Our repast was all we could expect. The person who is fond of tasteless beans will find Spain a paradise. In this land of olives, those served on the table are bitter and disagreeable, and the oil, in which everything is cooked, is uniformly rancid. But it should be confessed the oil is better than the butter, when the latter luxury is attainable. Something seems to be the matter with the cows. I do not wonder that the Spaniards are at table a temperate and abstemious race. It is no merit to be abstemious with such food and cooking. The wine at Arcos, however, was a sort of manzanilla, that made us regard any food with favor. It was a medicinal draught, with a very strong flavor of camomile—a very useful root, I believe, in the manipulation of the market sherry, and exceedingly wholesome. So long as a man can drink this wine, he will not die. I should recommend the total abstinence society to introduce it into our country."

So he goes on, finding Spain a larger Arcos, except when he meets with some of the Moorish art or romance, which serves as a foil to degrade the present possessors of the land still more. They do not, it appears, even court

their ladies with guitars. Courtship in Spain was like everything else—it struck no responsive chord in Mr. Warner's heart:

"The attitude of a lover in Spain is to stand motionless, hour after hour, at a heavily-grated window. We saw one slim gallant in the position, when we set out on our walk, and an hour after he maintained the same impassioned, patient embrace of the iron grating. It would seem to be a safe sort of courtship, and as intoxicating as talking with a nun through the grille of her cell."

Naturally, when he got out of Spain, Mr. Warner felt that he had got into paradise. But, clever as the sketches are, plainly as the scene is brought out—a European New Mexico, treeless, mountainous, dry, a land of torrents, and precipitous paths, and white shining cities, and burning skies; convincing as the proof is that the difference between the Spaniard and the literary idea of him is astonishingly great and disappointing, nevertheless we cannot but believe that "something was the matter" with Mr. Warner as well as with the Spanish cows, and that a slight change in the organism unscientific as it would be might have modified the environment. After all, it is not Spain present, but Spain past, that one wishes to hear about, and it takes an imaginative rather than a realistic observer to tell us the thing of interest. Whatever be the reason of our distrust of the comprehensiveness of Mr. Warner's story, no one will go to Spain on his recommendation. He concludes his work with an account of the Bayreuth "Parsifal," which seems to have got lost from some other volume and has unexpectedly turned up here, where it has no place.

Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache. Von Dr. F. Kluge. Strassburg: Trübner, 1882-83. Pp. 428. (10.50 marks).

THE introduction to this dictionary contains a brief history of the language. At the end are lists of the Greek, Latin, Italian, French, and English words mentioned in the work. The author accomplishes for German what Skeat attempted to do for English. He gives us a dictionary written according to the soundest scientific methods now recognized, and, after a critical sifting of what is settled and still to be settled, he embodies in his work the results of the investigations of the last fifteen or twenty years. Weigand was growing antiquated very fast, and, in fact, never seriously pretended to give us any connection between old or modern German and Indo-European philology. Skeat, though more ambitious, is not able to go back of Fick and Curtius, who belong to the old school of etymologists, though far in advance of Pott, Benfey, Diefenbach, and others. In fact, as Sweet has pointed out in his review of Skeat's work, the value of this lies mainly in its Middle-English word tracing. Kluge evidently belongs to the so-called "neuere Richtung" of philologists, to which belong such workers as Leskien, Osthoff, Paul, Braune, Sievers, Hübschmann, Verner, the discoverer of the famous law that explains the last large group of apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law, Sweet in England, and Storm in Scandinavia. It would be out of place here to state their methods and principles, which have been frequently set forth and not unfrequently attacked. They have now gained such a foothold that they can well afford to desist from polemics and point to the results of their methods. Besides their work upon the narrower fields of the individual Germanic and other Indo-European languages, they have obtained important results in the investigations upon metre (Sievers, Vetter), upon accent (Verner), upon ablaut (nearly all of them), in phonetics (Sweet, Sievers, Storm), in the science of language

(Paul's "Principles of Language-History"). Now comes Kluge with his Dictionary, and we are also promised a Comparative Germanic Grammar by Sievers, a great Compendium by Brugman, that is to supersede Schleicher's, and a Latin Dictionary by Osthoff.

Etymology no longer consists in "radicarian linguistry," as A. J. Ellis calls such speculation in roots, themes, bases, types, as the older philologists indulged in. It is now growing to be a science as strict and exact as any, in so far as it is based upon a phonology which, like a physical science, recognizes no exceptions that cannot in some way or other be accounted for. On the other hand, etymology has still to deal with those subtle and difficult elements in language-growth, viz.: analogy, based upon psychology, and the influence of one language and nation upon another. Kluge's work surprises one with the large amount of institutional and political history which enters into sound etymology without running into the sermons of Trench or the rhetoric of Max Müller. Examine, for instance, such articles as *Ostern*, *Brot* (*Laib*), *Kaiser*, *nackt*, *blind*, *Hagestolz*, *Burg*, *deutsch*, *Gott*, *Käse*, *Gast*, *Hanf*, *Hemd*, *Locke*, *Leiche*, *lesen*, *Mann*, the group formed by *Bursche*, *Haus*, *Frauenzimmer*, *Imme*, *Jugend*, and *Kamerad*. The principle that words are never borrowed singly but in groups is quite evident when we think of the English sporting terms in the languages of the Continent, and the French fashion terms in all modern languages. But it has never been so freely and successfully applied to the older stages of the language as by Kluge. The sailors' language spread from Low German (Dutch chiefly). French furnished gambling terms, e. g., *Daus*, *Pasch*. The Romans, who, according to Pliny, imported German geese extensively, gave the Germans the words *Flaum*, *Kissen*, *Pfuhl*, *Pipps*. Weaving terms went with the art of weaving from the Germanic nations to the Romanic, and not vice versa, viz.: *Filz*, *Haspe*, *Rocken*, *Kunkel*. With the introduction of Christianity among the Germanic tribes went the terms pertaining to the Church and faith, either directly from the Latin, or, through the Arian church and Gothic, from Greek. Words are not merely borrowed in groups, but also preserved and even revived in groups, if once they had grown obsolete. Thus a group, viz.: *Kämpe*, *Halle*, *Gau*, *Elf*, *Hain*, *Heim*, *Weigand*, *Wat*, was revived in the eighteenth century, during the influence of English literature, by the patriotic poets. Our oldest words are, of course, those expressing rela-

tionship, the names of parts of the body, the numerals (see the introduction).

Kluge is very cautious on slippery ground. He is bold enough to say, "I don't know," or "This is by no means certain," where others know, or think they know. Among English philologists it is still the fashion to make a word Welsh when they are in a dilemma. Kluge has rescued two words from that unknown and therefore safe territory, viz.: *Bruch* and *Hemd*. There are as many as thirty new etymologies, and many more that are partly or largely new; e. g., *gehen*, *beben*, *Graf*, *Hirn*, *Hornisse*, *Degen*, *Gott*, *Amsel*, *Weichbild*. For *Nest*, Pott's view is vindicated. Compare the above words and many others in Kluge's and in other dictionaries, old or new, and it will be clear what an advance there is in the former. The proper names are included. Interesting is, e. g., *Bismarck*, under *Bistum*, bishopric, from "*bischoves marc*," upon which the estates of the family bordered. The reintroduction of *th* for *d* in English father, mother, hither, Kluge explains as a phonetic transition brought about by *r*. But he does not say how *r* could bring this about. Skeat thinks it due to Scandinavian influence; but is not the last middle-English period a rather late one for that influence? It is due rather to analogy with the more frequent words in *-ther*, several of them old comparatives, e. g., whether, other, brother, nether, wether, feather, leather. Any one having only a meagre knowledge of German can, particularly with the aid of the English word-list, use this dictionary for English also. A number of words, however, are put down as modern English which are hardly so; e. g., *coom*, *cant*, *therf*, *hele*, *mizen*. "Chary" (sub *Karg*) does not mean "sad" now. The following cognates in German and English are not marked as such: *erst*, *erst*; *Flinte*, *flintlock*; *verloren*, *forlorn*; *grunzen*, *grunt*; *jucken*, *itch*; *hügel*, *how*; *Kappes*, *cabbage*; *sengen*, *singe*; *stottern*, *stutter*; *tapfer*, *dapper*; *strotzen*, *strut*; *taugen*, *do*; *Schosz*, *Schöszling*, *shoot*; *Wahn* (in *Wahnsinn*), *wan* (*h*), *wane*; *gewahr*, *aware*, *beware*; *Welker*, *walker*; *Wat*, *weeds*; *Pferd*, *palfrey*. The articles on *Star*, *Seide*, *Sprache*, *Seife*, *Ufer*, *dunkel*, *Fenster*, are good examples of how much regard is had for English.

In every respect, Kluge's work combines strict science with popular features. It is a model of conciseness and brevity. There is no learned clap-trap, such as Skeat's list of Aryan Roots, which have still the form that they were supposed to have twenty years ago. Many articles

we could wish much longer. The declension of nouns and the ablaut-series of the verbs will be missed by many. *Na*, *nu*, *nit*, hardly deserve separate articles. If *Amulet* is given, why not *Nummer*, a word of much older importation? Among the few misprints, the following are annoying: "Price" and "prize," under *Preis*; *Stil* for *Stiel*, under *Halfter*.

Growth of the English Colonies. By Sidney Mary Sitwell. London: Rivingtons. Small 8vo, pp. 125, with index.

THIS is one of the small manuals which have lately been published in England in considerable numbers. It belongs to the series called "Highways of History," and aims at an outline of each selected topic independently of the others. Instead of treating history in the form of annals, or of a general narrative, which necessarily passes back and forth among widely separated places and subjects, this runs through a completed but brief sketch of each colonial settlement made by the mother country, from its first beginnings to the present time. It therefore does not profess so much to be history as a full analysis or table of contents of larger histories, arranged by topics. The method has its valuable uses; for a small handbook of this sort is a convenience to have at one's elbow to verify a date, or give a quick outline of events one may not choose to run down in more elaborate works. The task seems to be carefully and conscientiously done, making a trustworthy little volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbey, H. *The City of Success and other Poems*. D Appleton & Co.
 Armitage, E. *Lectures on Painting*: delivered to Students of the Royal Academy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.
 Arnold, Matthew. *Poems*. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. \$3.50.
 Baker, the Rev. W. M. *The Ten Theophanies*. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$1.50.
 Brewster, A. Henry Irving: a Biographical Sketch. Scribner & Welford.
 Browne, L., and Behnke, E. *Voice, Song, and Speech: a Practical Guide for Singers and Speakers*. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
 Cushman, Rev. G. F. *Doctrine and Duty; or, Notes of the Church*. Sermons. Thomas Whitaker. \$1.25.
 Douglas, Amanda M. *Floyd Grandon's Honor. A Story*. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.
 Dunbar, H. *A Complete Concordance to the Comedies and Fragments of Aristophanes*. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
 Elaeffer, Amanda S. *Down in the Clover and other Stories*. S. W. Green's Son.
 Elwell, E. H. *The Boys of Thirty-five: a Story of a Seaport Town*. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.25.
 Furneaux, H. *The Annals of Tacitus*. Vol. I. Books 1-6. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
 Gosse, J. *A Royal Pastoral and other Poems*. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
 Jephson, Philippa P. *An April Day: a novel*. Harper & Brothers. 15 cents.
 Lytton, Earl. *The Life, Letters, and Literary Remains of Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton*. Part I. Autobiography. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.

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